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The Systematic Approach to Instruction:
An Effective Instructional Strategy for Learning

Maria Nina Visconti

A Thesis
in
The Department
of
Education

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ABSTRACT

The Systematic Approach to Instruction:
An Effective Instructional Strategy for Learning

Maria Nina Visconti

Instructional strategy is one of the major factors to affect student's learning. This study thus compared performance of a systematic approach to instruction to an objective-based and traditional approach on 159 fourth grade students learning Italian as a 'heritage' language. Prior to treatment the students were measured for level of school ability (above average, average, and below average), and motivation (high, medium, and low). Pre- and post-tests on comprehension, grammar, spelling and composition were administered. The results showed the systematic strategy group to perform statistically better when compared to the objective-based and traditional groups in grammar and composition. Significant differences were also found for levels of school ability for the above average students in grammar, spelling and composition. In motivation significant differences were found among the three levels groupings on the spelling test. The outcomes of this study suggest that a systematic instructional design can be an effective and important factor in learning.

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CHAPTER I

Rationale

In recent years there has been evidence that alternative modes of instruction will differentially be effective with various kinds of students in particular situations (Cronbach & Snow, 1976). A wide range application of different instructional methodologies seems to be an increasing phenomena. As Bruner (1964) has remarked, "An effective curriculum must contain many tracks to the same goal" (p. 334). Glaser supports these views by writing that as this "...technology (of instruction) comes into being, the artful and creative potential of each teacher can be enhanced" (p. 3). In fact, Schutz (1970) not only observes but proposes that, "Product development is designed to provide defined alternatives from which human beings may select to extend their capabilities. These alternatives consist of organized materials and procedures that have been found by other human beings to produce described consequences" (p. 43). Many concrete theories and effective instruments have been put forward and implemented in education in the need to render instruction as individualized as possible by educators such as Bloom, Gagné, Goodlad, Kapfer and others. The researchers are in agreement that learners are to be systematically given the necessary skills. Bloom (1971) found in research studies with children that carefully planned, sequential learning, with frequent diagnostic and progress testing was essentially the answer to mastery (pp. 43-56). Popham (1970) not only favors the use of instructional programs but also suggests that teachers select the alternatives most appropriate to their purposes. In doing so, instructional programs are helpful in "modifying the behaviors of learners" (p. 10) and "relieving the teacher of more time-

consuming tasks, such as planning lessons" (Popham 1970, p. 115). According to Dick and Carey (1978) this approach emphasizes a carefully prepared lesson plan, logically organized material, and specific educational objectives, and tends to emphasize 'getting the correct answer' (p. 3). Related to the use of instructional objectives, research suggests that a clear perception of self-improvement from the individual leads to increased perseverance and drive towards achievement and competence (White, 1959).

The present study thus proposes to apply the systematic design of instruction to the communicative approach in Italian language teaching.

Background

The Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which funds and coordinates all cultural activities abroad, has been making formal efforts to foster the teaching of the Italian language in foreign countries with the purpose of maintaining and developing the knowledge of the language of the Italian culture. Furthermore, these efforts allow the student to obtain an equivalent elementary degree in the foreign country, thus ensuring possible integration into the Italian curriculum.

The overall objectives of the Italian courses given are: (1) the acquisition of the language in its current use, (2) the acquisition of language structures and (3) the knowledge of some basic elements of history and geography of the Italian civilization.

In Europe, these courses have attained international status because the participating teachers and professors are integrated into the local system and therefore teach in whatever curriculum, be it elementary or secondary. In Canada, unfortunately, there isn't a mutual agreement

between the Italian and the Canadian governments. Therefore, the instruction takes place through the councillor center via local cultural centers. Specifically in Montreal, the courses are given by the Italian-Canadian Patronage for Assistance to Immigrants (P.I.C.A.I.). While in Europe the instructors are required to meet very specific standards, in Canada, the lack of texture and lack of integration into the curriculum means that no control measure are imposed on teachers' qualification and training, and therefore, teaching cannot be systematic.

Many factors can contribute to difficulties in learning. Children feel they don't need to learn their 'heritage' language to function in their environment. Research shows that children will be motivated to acquire a new language only as a result of a need to communicate (Taylor, 1976). Furthermore, the courses are given on Saturday mornings, on a day in which many other extracurricular activities take place. Younger children express their wish to watch cartoons on T.V. and others prefer to play outdoors. However, the children are forcibly sent by the parents to school where they are faced with a course which to most of them sounds like a new science. The language is taught through a breakdown of its grammatical constituents with use of laborious conjugation exercises. Moreover, the brand of Italian they are asked to learn is not at all like the dialect spoken at home and therefore, it seems to have no functional use. The experience becomes frustrating, and the observed result is an increase in absenteeism and a decrease in willingness to work and communicate in Italian. This frustration and obvious lack of interest experienced by the students is in turn perceived by most teachers as a disciplinary problem. The problems of motivation, learning and behavior become so closely linked that it is difficult not to intervene with

disciplinary action. The term discipline, according to Le François (1979), refers to the variety of methods employed "to maintain the sort of classroom that is conducive not only to learning but to healthy personal development of individuals within the class" (p. 316). The variety of methods implied by Le François are interactive factors such as (1) instructional strategies, (2) teacher-learner interaction techniques, and (3) rewards and punishment. Also, research shows that negative behavior displayed by students can be changed and redirected positively (Gagné, 1977), and many researchers suggest that a primary source could be the instructional strategy.

Context of the Problem

An extensive amount of research has been done to measure language aptitude, intelligence and attitude to determine their effect on second-language achievement. Research has found that linguistic aptitude is not the only characteristic affecting one's ability to learn languages. Carroll (1962) suggested that second language achievement varies as a function of three learner characteristics: aptitude, general intelligence and motivation, and two instructional variables: the opportunity the student has for learning and the adequacy of presentation of the materials to be learned.

In regard to the instructional materials, the Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs does provide an official program but it doesn't prescribe or impose any specific set of materials. Such programs are extremely flexible in content and strategy because they have to be adapted to many different countries. Their pragmatic guideline requires the use of the communicative approach, focused on the following: 1) concise expressions based on simple and basic vocabulary, 2) simple but complete sentences

organized in context to initiate and integrate into a discussion, 3) linguistic expressions that reflect and are related to realistic situations, 4) lesson plans based on and articulated to the needs of the learners and 5) most important, they ask teachers to avoid a language which is beyond the student's level of comprehension and to carefully incorporate student's feedback. The director of each school and the local teachers are left with the task of providing the overall objectives, instructional sequence, materials, overall evaluation and lesson planning. However, personal experience and observation suggest such guidelines have not been successful in promoting better learning and teaching.

The reasons which contribute to the unsuccessful implementation of the program are too numerous and complex. Therefore, the present study has addressed only some of the likely factors associated with its failure. These include the following: (1) insufficient teacher training and preparation, (2) little, if any, teacher involvement in program development, (3) little, if any, lesson planning and (4) few instructional materials available that are of interest to the student. The development of a new program would be needed to minimize the above factors.

Systematic Approach to Instruction

Dick and Carey (1978) provide a generalized model for designing instruction with all the prerequisites of a successful instructional system. The model describes the procedures for developing a module regardless of the type of learner or the type of learning which is to occur (see Figure 1). The approach provides (1) a strategy or planning method, (2) a solution framework which would provide structure for

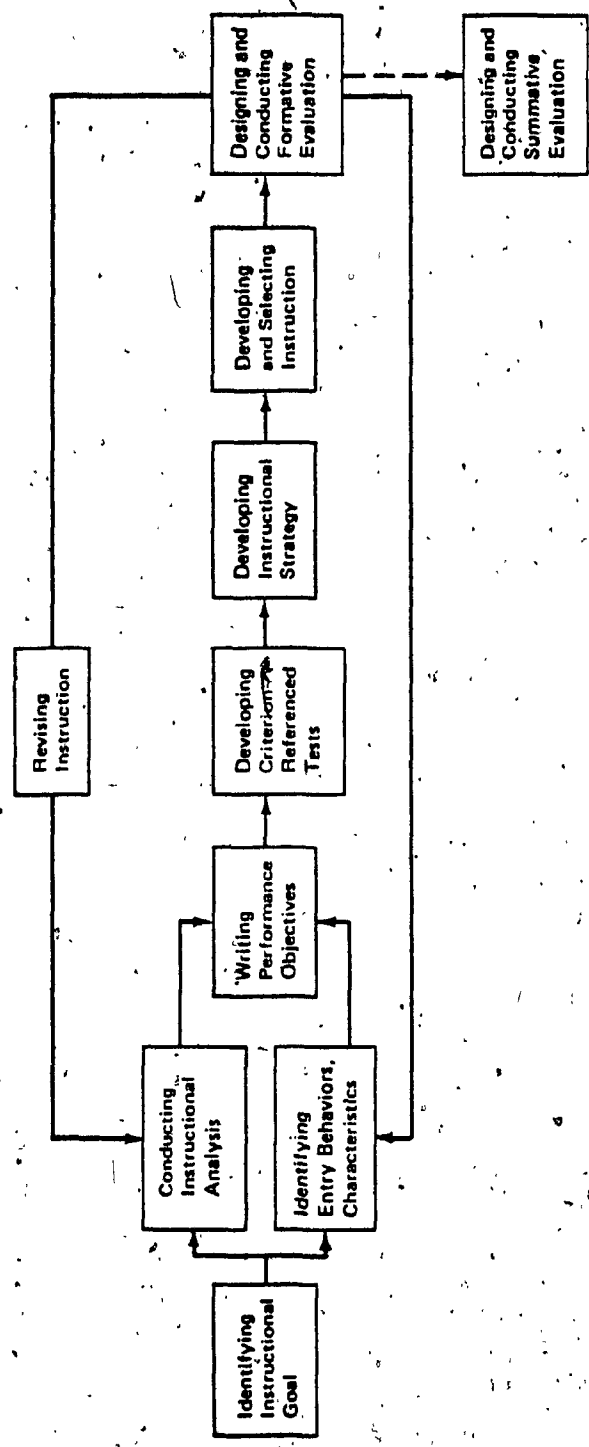


Figure 1 Systems Approach Model for Designing Instruction

elements needed to be considered and interrelated, (3) a set of techniques for use by the individual teacher and student to be utilized in planning and organizing learning activities, (4) a teacher's role that is facilitated to guide, and is based on knowledge of resources, not authority, and (5) a method of evaluation for the teacher and one that lets the student self-evaluate his/her performance. The systems approach can be used as a means to generate a systematic instructional program (Dick & Carey, 1978).

A widely accepted definition of a systematic instructional program has been given by Lumsdaine (1964):

An instructional program is a vehicle which generates an essentially reproducible sequence of instructional events and accepts responsibility for efficiently accomplishing a specified change from a given range of initial competencies or behavioral tendencies.

(p. 385)

Examples of such programs are currently in use, and most of them share common characteristics of systematic instructional materials: objectives are prespecified; entry requirements are designated for each stage of instruction; and teaching materials are organized sequentially in accordance with a set of learning principles (e.g., prompting, reinforcement and feedback). Finally, criterion-referenced performances are provided. According to Mitchell (1977) though, typical instructional programs have limited success, as they are too rigid and incomplete. Mitchell questions the fixed strategy of lesson plans, behavioral objectives and task analysis. He suggests that when designing instruction, it is more important to consider a representation of subject matter

(knowledge) and 'feedback controlled' (p. 338) sequence of instructional materials. In other words, an instructional program should provide the instructor with the freedom to monitor and control the strategy in response to feedback from the student at each learning stage. The idea of feedback is in effect in accordance to the pragmatic guidelines given by the Italian Ministry.

Communicative Approach to Language Teaching

The Ministry proposes a communicative language approach in its objective to obtain communicative competence. Savignon (1976) defines communicative competence as "the ability to function in a truly communicative setting, that is, a spontaneous transaction involving one or more other persons" (p. 12). The instructors are instructed to teach via conversational techniques. It should be used in its simplest form to stimulate communicative interaction, leading towards an analysis of the most common grammatical structures needed to promote effective and functional communication of the Italian language. Research in second language acquisition supports the notion of beginning with meaning rather than form. Cummins (1981) and Krashen (1981) have both carried out psycholinguistic studies which supply a very strong theoretical rationale for communicative language teaching. These provide support for the notion of relevant context. This means that language teaching involves the individual in the act of communicating, and not in thinking about the forms of the new language. This also means communicating about something of interest to the individual learner and in turn, influencing the approach taken in structuring and sequencing the communicative functions and situations.

The purpose is to give structure and sequence to linguistic forms,

communicative functions and topics or themes. A systematic approach ensures that the instructional strategy selects all the components that will help bring about the skills in achieving communicative competence (e.g., role plays, games and simulations, and problem solving activities) without losing focus. Characteristics of the program obviously will take into consideration the solutions proposed by research in communicative competence (e.g., Allen, 1980; Allwright, 1978; Maley, 1980; Stern, 1978; 1980; Yalden, 1980; Widdowson, 1978; Wilkins, 1976).

Research Question

Many claim the efficacy of the systematic approach to instructional design (Dick & Carey, 1978; Gagné & Briggs, 1979). Researchers concerned with academic achievement generally have tended to focus on the effects of particular curricular content or instructional methods (e.g., Doyle, 1978; Posner, 1974). The main purpose of this research is to compare the effects of three instructional strategies of instructional design on language learning: systematic, objective-based and traditional, on four measures of performance - listening comprehension, grammar, spelling and composition in fourth grade children. School ability and motivational levels of learners are also assessed to observe their interaction with the strategies and how they effect performance. It is recognized that such preliminary research is limited, in that a gross comparison between two or more strategies cannot determine all the causal factors affecting the results. Thus, when comparing instructional strategies, precautions must be taken when considering the possible threats to validity and reliability. Nevertheless, because emphasis has been placed on external validity, a comparison of this sort can provide some evidence regarding the usefulness of the systematic approach in real educational settings.

Differences Among Strategies

The traditional strategy is based on the premise that children come to school and are expected to go through the traditional language learning skills: listening, reading, writing and speaking with no systematically designed curriculum. That is, it presumes that the lessons are prestructured and sequenced to provide continuity, relevance and variety for the learner. If any structure or sequence exists, it is based on grammar and vocabulary because they offer criteria for selection and gradation (Brumfit, 1980). The reading text usually artificially contrives to represent the structures and vocabulary introduced in the lesson. Formal learning of a second language has traditionally involved within the classroom a three-way interaction: the teacher, the student and the material (Mackay, 1965). However, in the traditional classroom, the teacher has remained the center or core of learning. Finally, the traditional strategy is not usually based on any particular standard of comparison. It is therefore difficult to assess overall instructional effectiveness, and the teacher is forced to revert to strictly normative criteria. In practice, all may "fail", but some less so than others. For the record, though, there are still always As, Bs, Cs, etc.

Since this study intended to test whether the instructional design as a whole will have a major impact upon increasing the level of performance, a second control group is introduced: the objective-based approach. According to Steiner (1975) objectives provide criteria for instruction because they specify (1) the behaviors to be taught, (2) strategy for instruction and (3) criteria for evaluating student at the end of instruction.

The systematic approach to instructional design supports the use of behavioral objectives. Research has shown that objectives are useful

guidelines for content (Gerlach, Haygood, Filan, Schmid, Wegand & Hagin, 1978) but reveals inconclusive evidence in their effectiveness in teaching/learning processes (Kibler & Bassett, 1977). Roberts (1982) feels that this may be due to the lack of systematic procedures or strategies, therefore diverging from the original intent and the actual use of instructional materials. In fact, Gerlach et al, (1978, p. 64) show evidence that those teachers who are provided with objectives only, do not necessarily behave with 'corresponding precision' and suggest that teachers need to be trained to effectively use objectives. The key factor is whether the teacher behaves in accordance with the objectives, not whether objectives are present or not.

This study's systematic instructional strategy focuses on teaching materials for which (1) a definite learning purpose has been established, (2) instructional sequence and lesson planning provide continuity, relevance and variety for the learner, (3) changes in teacher-student roles allow teachers the opportunity to work with students on a one-to-one basis, (4) students become involved in controlling the learning activities and will be motivated to accept responsibility for their own instruction, rather than always be told or expected to be told by the teacher, and (5) level of performance in communicative competence should change. The first four are common to all good instruction, and the fifth shows the critical emphasis on the observable behavior required of this particular system.

Threats to external validity were controlled by studying the effects on learning in a real instructional setting. The subjects chosen sufficiently represent the general population for the given purpose. The only threat to external validity is the absence of complete control for

the selection of teachers. Therefore, the teachers were also selected at random with their respective group and are considered representatives of the general population of teachers available in this particular instructional setting.

Cognitive and Affective Characteristics

It has sometimes been found that intelligence is not a major factor in success. Pimsleur (1980) estimated that intelligence accounts for only 16 percent of success in second language learning skills. However, aptitude has been found to relate to success in the second language classrooms as a whole and to specific language skills as well (Carroll & Sapon, 1959; Gardner & Lambert, 1965). Many psychologists and educators have also observed the relationship between motivation and learning (Hill, 1977). It has been found that there is a direct relationship between an individual's motivation to achieve and strive for competence, and performance (McClelland & Winter, 1969; Weiner, 1972; 1974). Operationalizing control in a quasi-experimental design is challenging and particularly vulnerable to internal validity threats (Drew, 1980). Therefore, to minimize probability of group composition bias, two variables: school ability and motivational level were used to objectively evaluate and assign the learners to three levels of school ability and motivation, respectively. Statistical regression was controlled for by not classifying the groups with a pre-existing subject classification but dividing the groups into thirds.

Evaluation

Another means of controlling for bias is in the development and implementation of comprehensive and objective dependent measures. A pretest/posttest design was chosen to examine and control any initial

differences among the groups. Instrumentation was not a threat because the same procedures and instruments were used for all groups, simultaneously. There are four skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking, by which language could be measured. Research suggests that overall, language ability can best be measured by means of written work (Brodkey & Young, 1981; Kaczmarek, 1980; Oller & Perkins, 1980). Therefore, the study assessed performance on communicative competence by writing samples. Performance on the tests should provide the basis for determining the acquired level of competence among the three instructional strategies.

It was expected that the more systematically designed the instruction, the more effective it would prove to be, both with respect to learners' achievement and their attitude toward the program. In that high ability learners usually perform well regardless of the instructional strategy, it was hoped that the systematic approach would prove particularly useful for lower ability learners.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

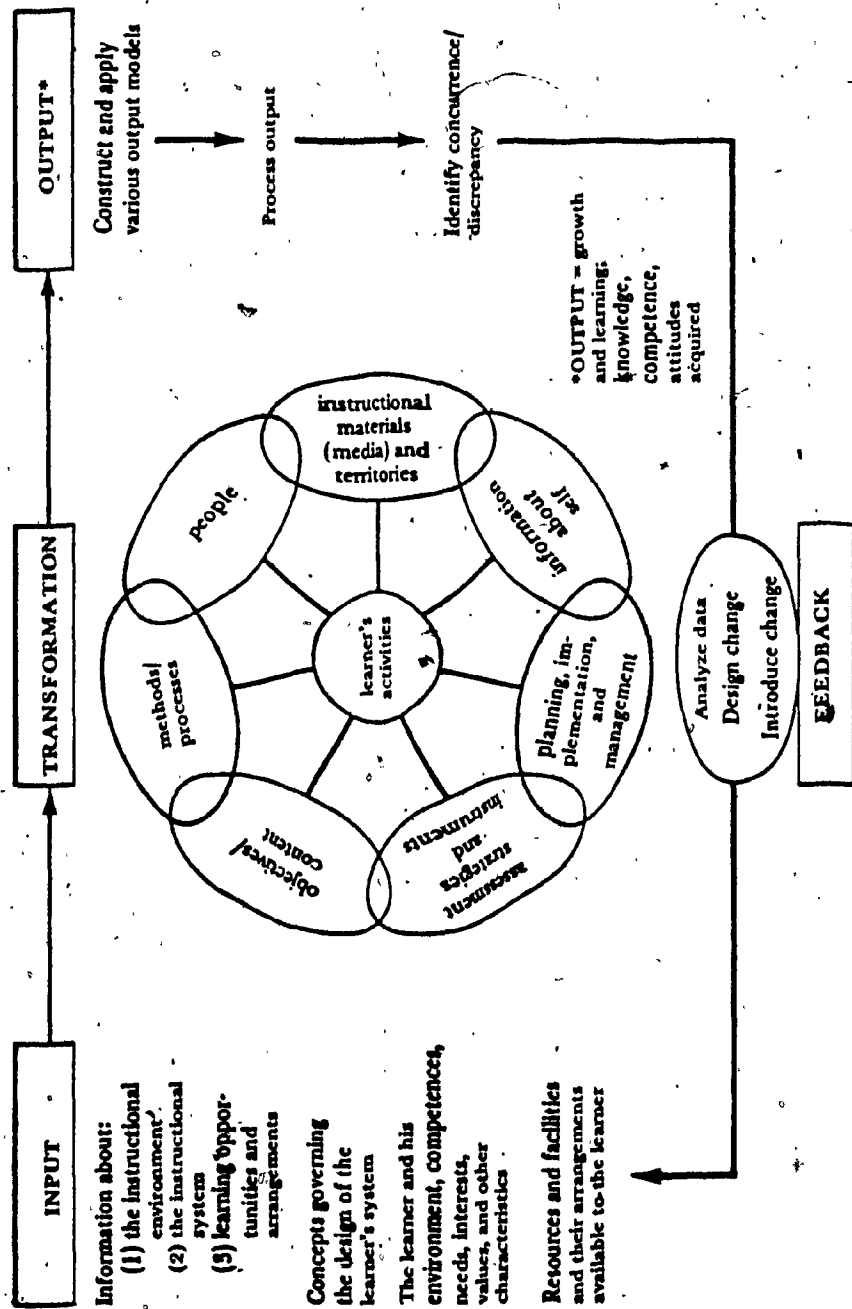
Systems Approach

The systemic approach to instruction was conceptualized as early as 1935 by Ralph Tyler. It has been demonstrated to be a valuable means of defining objectives for subject matter and an aid in selecting and devising effective instruction. Furthermore, in its attempts to minimize failure and maximize success, its aims are to increase qualitatively the co-operation and attention of the learner towards a given task. The interest in this approach rests on the fact that it brings about direct, observable and measurable criteria. The success of the systems approach depends on an arrangement of interacting objects, people or events to perform one or more functions. Banathy (1977) claims that there are three major systems which must interact and interrelate in designing instructional and learning systems: input, transformations and output. Accordingly, the output, the "instructional system provides the learning opportunities and resources to the learner" and "the learner system provides structures, operational arrangements and resources by which learner's activities can be planned, programmed, implemented and monitored" (Banathy, 1977).

In its simplest form, Banathy combines the two systems (see Figure 2) and emphasizes that the nucleus of the whole system is the learner. Therefore, in order to allow the 'learner system' to become operational, the output of the instructional system is essential and must be made available to it.

Banathy is not suggesting a rigid structure but that the system be flexible and adaptive. Learning occurs when there is a change in behavior, which is usually dependent upon selective reinforcement and adaptation (Le François, 1979).

FIGURE 2 Learner System, a Process Model



Simon (1978) suggests "that human problem solving, from the most blundering to the most insightful, involves nothing more than varying mixtures of trial and error and selectivity." Selectivity derives from various 'rules of thumb', better known as heuristics. Heuristics suggests which paths should be tried first or "which leads are promising" (Simon, 1978, p. 97). According to Simon (1978, p. 25) the "thinking human being is an adaptive system, his goals define the interface between his inner and outer environments", who draws from the learning environments and sets his own goals in function of his learning needs whose limits are also self-determined. As a result, the goal of learning must eventually arise from the individual. Motivational factors may also arise from a state of need and may be considered the energizer of the system in order for it to enter a dynamic state. Therefore, it is not a matter of imparting motivation, but of arranging conditions for study and learning, so that they will be reinforcing (Skinner, 1968; Ausubel, 1968 in Gagné, 1977).

According to Pask (1970) an appropriate juxtaposition of the following four components: reproduction, variation, selection and co-operation summarizes learning. Therefore, the instructional system must be reproducible with a set goal in mind. There must be variety to deal with the randomly disposed problems, selection must be made due to constraints and in order for it to function, there must be co-operation between the external and internal environment between and within the two systems: instructional and learner systems (Schoderbek, Kefalas & Schoderbek, 1975; Ashby, 1976). The system must be dynamic in which feedback provides the specific and relevant information to alter behavior and allow for improvement.

Systematic Approach

The systems approach has contributed to many models of systematic instructional design. The systematic approach is, according to Dick and Carey (1978), a medium of instruction emphasizing the importance of careful structuring of instructional materials. There are various ways in which the stages of instructional design could be outlined. The Dick and Carey's model though is not without fault. A comparative analysis of forty models of instructional design studies by Andrews and Goodson (1980) summarizes that most models of instructional design have descriptive, prescriptive and/or explanatory elements and of which serve four purposes to instructional design:

1. Improve learning and instruction by means of problem solving and feedback characteristics of the systematic approach.
2. Improving management of instructional design and development by means of the monitoring and control functions.
3. Improving evaluation processes by means of the sequences of events, feedback and revision inherent in models of systematic instructional design.
4. Testing or building learning or instructional theory by means of theory-based design with a model of instructional design.

In comparing the models to Gropper's (1977) list of ten common tasks, Andrews and Goodson's (1980) classification state that Dick and Carey's (1978) model includes all of the tasks except for sequencing of goals subgoals to facilitate learning, installment and maintenance and repairing of instructional programs. However, the model's origin is both theoretically and empirically based. The theoretical components include adult learning theories and other theories of learning; the empirical

components include reports of experience or research of viable processes. The emphasis of the model is placed on analysis of function, including content, task, and learning analysis of systems theory. Its purposes and uses are to: 1) teach instructional design, 2) produce viable instructional product(s) or activity(ies) for non-formal and formal instruction, and 3) develop small-scale lessons, courses and modules. Furthermore, it also provides the documentation, application, or validation data relating to the use of the total model, suggesting that the outline and the description of Dick and Carey's model is sufficient to qualify as documentation (see Figure 1).

Language Teaching

Recently, researchers have been proposing that language learning is: learning to communicate (Wilkins, 1976), a mode of communication (Krumm, 1980), getting involved in real-life communication (Stern, 1980), or learning to communicate as a member of a particular socio-cultural group (Breen & Candlin, 1980). According to Brumfit (1980), language is not a set of definable and prearranged tokens but a process of linguistic and cultural negotiation of meaning. The underlying assumption of the traditional grammatical syllabus is that, given the ability to form grammatically correct sentences, the student shall be able to speak (Wilkins, 1976). Consequently, derived teaching methodologies require that sentences be taught separately, through a process of gradual acquisition, and that each sentence be focused on a well defined grammatical structure. As a result, the student will gradually build up a linguistic proficiency, which in this case is equated with the ability to form grammatically correct sentences. The criteria suggested for the selection of the content are merely grammatical and based on.

simplicity, regularity, frequency and contrastive difficulty (Lee, 1963; Mackey, 1965). Lexical content is secondary and is chosen according to 'frequency', 'range', 'availability', 'familiarity' and 'coverage' (Mackey, 1965; Richards, 1970). Consequently, derived teaching strategies make broad use of sentences which are not context bound, but individually chosen and taught. Under the same structural assumptions, language is supposedly acquired and digested by habit-formation, imitation and repetition (Carroll, 1965; Gagné, 1977; Jakobovitz, 1970), without any consideration for the learners' input in defining his linguistic needs.

In order to bridge the gap between mere linguistic proficiency and communicative competence, it is necessary to adopt a working model which takes into account the communicative needs of the learner. Such a model should state the objectives in functional terms, focusing on what the learner will do with the language. It should provide the tools to create coherent discourse, rather than simulating production of cohesive sentences (Widdowson, 1978). Richards (1984) summarizes the above when quoting the following:

Learning is not seen as the means of accumulating knowledge but as the means of becoming more proficient in whatever one is engaged in.

(Gattegno, 1972, p. 89)

Richards and Rodgers (1982), in the process of systematically describing and comparing methods, defined the whole language teaching practice as being the method, and made up of three interrelated elements called approach, design and procedure. Approach is defined in this case as being a theory of language and of language learning. The approach provides the reference point and the theoretical foundation of

what will be done in the classroom. The design attempts to relate the theories of language and learning to the content, the selection and organization of content, and a description of the role of teacher, learner and teaching materials and activities in a given instructional setting. The procedure is the application and the observed manifestation of the approach and the design through techniques such as the types of activities, exercises and materials used in the classroom. Therefore, the communicative approach aims at producing communicative competence through all kinds of language function and situational exemplification without losing sight of grammatical factors.

Richards' (1984) observed that the 'missing element' in instructional design is not the method to be adopted but how to develop the procedures and instructional activities to attain the desired objectives. Richards and Rodgers (1982) refer to procedure as "the actual moment to moment techniques, practices and activities that operate in teaching and learning language to a particular method." (p. 163). These procedures include a specification of context and a description of what the learner is expected to do in each type of exercise.

Dick and Carey (1978) refer to this aspect of instructional design as the instructional strategy.

Instructional Strategy Design

A weak area of knowledge in instructional design and probably the most 'neglected phase' according to Wileman and Gambill (1983) is the 'analysis and synthesis of instructional alternatives', otherwise known as the planning of the instructional strategy. Wileman and Gambill question why this aspect of instructional design has been neglected and question whether it lacks sound theory. They point out that the

technology of instructional strategy has been deriving theories from an extensive amount of sound research findings on learning from cognitive psychologists, personality theorists and behaviorists. Hilgard and Bower (1975) point out that most of the principles from stimulus-response, cognitive, and motivation/personality theories of learning are largely accepted from all theoretical positions, although terminology and degree of emphasis differ. They summarize all of the above theories as 'suggestions for practice'.

Dick and Carey's (1978) procedures rely mostly on the work of educational psychologists Gagné and Briggs. According to Dick and Carey (1978), "an instructional strategy describes the general components of a set of instructional materials and the procedures that will be used with those materials to elicit particular learning outcomes from students." (p. 106). Wileman and Gambill (1983) summarize an instructional strategy to include the following: "(1) a clear instructional plan for sequencing and structuring the learning experience; (2) instructional materials for the learner to read, view, or experience; and (3) instructional materials for the teacher to use or manipulate in some fashion." (p. 25).

Structure and Sequence

Preinstructional activities. In the classroom, the teacher and students are equally engaged in developing the lesson. The academic task structures the logical sequencing of instruction. This structure is governed by (1) the logic of the subject matter, (2) the information content of the various sequential steps, (3) and the strategies for completing the task and (4) the physical materials. The interaction of these four aspects are further governed by the interaction between

learners and time (Erikson, 1982). Erikson emphasizes three fundamental characteristics of learning and teaching: cues, participation, and reinforcement, derived from Dollard and Miller (1950), Carroll (1963) and Bloom (1976). Lysakowski and Walberg (1982) studied the instructional effects of cues and participation which supports the theory that the students need to be motivated to learn. Lavi (1983, 1984) describes the initial stage of teaching and learning as the communication process where the "purpose of communication is to transmit information and knowledge in order to persuade and influence." (p. 67). Dick and Carey's (1978) first component to the instructional strategy is that of the 'preinstructional activities'. This component concerns the motivational level of the learner or otherwise known in Gagné (1977) as 'gaining attention'.

Reigeluth (1983) in the process of describing the steps to instructional design, suggests that a motivational strategy component be integrated as an internal component. Furthermore, that each lesson should start with a motivational strategy component.

Motivation. The relationship of motivation and learning is very complex because it involves many factors and it is not the purpose of this thesis to explore these relationships in depth but to provide an understanding of how it is involved in instructional design. In fact, there is evidence that a relationship between the two exists (Travers, 1977). Although, motivation cannot be isolated, it can be identified systematically by a person's performance in relation to one's personality (Weiner, Frize, Kukla, Reed, Rest, & Rosenbaum, 1971). Weiner's theory assumes that an individual's personality can be identified as internally (e.g., ability, effort) or externally (e.g., luck, task difficulty)

oriented. In other words, the learner accepts or rejects responsibility for his/her performance. Researchers indicate that those who do accept the responsibility for learning tend to be high achievers, whereas those who don't accept responsibility tend to be low achievers in school (Weiner et al, 1971).

Despite the learner's personality and level of motivation, according to Bruner (1966) lack of motivation is likely to be a problem when learning is imposed, for it may seem irrelevant and inappropriate to the learner's need, or the learning required may be at a level which makes achieving competence almost impossible. Motivation cannot be imposed because it manifests itself and becomes the basis for learning only when the learner interacts with the external environment. The external environment is that component which can and must be manipulated by teacher in order to reinforce and change the level of motivation of the learner. The components are those conditions of learning under which the learner is being imposed upon to act. According to Gagné (1977), learners are motivated to learn academic subjects provided the teacher creates those conditions with materials and activities which reflect the students' capabilities and interests.

Carroll (1974) wrote that "even unmotivated students can learn, as long as they attend actively to the learning task." The author is actually referring to intrinsic motivation which is more related to the nature of what is being learned and includes the need to achieve, to improve self-image and reduce anxiety. Several studies have shown that in second language learning, students were bored with the relentless use of memorization and simple mechanical drills but were most motivated by spoken communication (Agard & Dunkel, 1948; McEvan & Minkel, 1979).

Frymier (1970) has defined motivation as "that which gives direction and intensity to behavior" (p. 23). Keller (1979) defines 'effort as a direct indicator of motivation' and considers 'performance as an indirect measure, because it is influenced by other variables' (p. 27). According to Keller (1979), in his review of theories on types of motivational theories, the major components in the expectancy-value theory is expectancies, that is the choices a person makes over one goal or another. The other component is value or the motive for the choices made. Keller (1979) cites Vroom (1964) and Atkinson (1974) who consider the two to be multiplicative. Keller's (1979) model of motivation adds another component to the theory, that being experience. Experience and the consequences are the input for feedback and allow for evaluation and modification of motives.

Learners enter an instructional system with an array of motives (Dodge, 1978). The problems behind the motives and values are not always controllable but four factors, (1) interest, (2) relevance, (3) expectancy, and (4) outcomes, can be controlled by effective instructional design (Keller, 1979). Variables such as curiosity, anxiety, expectancy, value, flow and interest can be temporarily changed to improve effort and performance during instruction by designing novelty, complexity, surprise or ambiguity (Berlyne, 1960 in Dodge, 1978; Kopp, 1982) by tests, by reinforcement, by level of difficulty (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975 in Dodge, 1978) and by humor, bright colors or media (Dodge, 1978, 1979; Keller, 1979; Dodge & Rossett, 1982).

Spitzer (1978) feels that while the oversimplification of learning has attempted to maximize learning, it has inversely affected motivation. He suggests conflict and complexity are needed to stimulate motivation and routine.

Kopp (1982) feels that although boredom can be controlled by the instructor's expertise in presenting, the learning environment, the learner themselves and the existing instructional programs, products and presentations should be analyzed when designing instruction.

Kopp (1982) suggests objectively questioning the learners about the instructions' ability to stimulate and direct attention.

Keller (1979) suggests two techniques for increasing effort to learn, games and simulations. However, other techniques such as conversations, dialogues, case studies and lectures may be just as effective (Orbach, 1979). Guntermann (1980) feels that the closest to reality are conversations and classroom exchanges about the students themselves and the least realistic are the simulations, role-playing and games. He feels that although games may be highly motivating, they tend to disturb learners from all purpose other than that of meaning. He feels that one of the essential and most natural ways to influence the learner's motivation and purpose in learning a language is to 'formulate the objectives in terms of the purposes for which language is used'. For example, asking for and giving information, requesting help, asking permission, etc... These objectives should be made known to the learners (Gagné, 1977).

Thompson (1982) for example, proposes the Thematic Integrated Method for Communicative Second Language Learning to bring together the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The advantages, according to Thompson, are themes that are adaptable to the age of the learners, the content can be laid out in detail and is flexible and of interest to the students.

Information presentation. Presenting information deals with sequencing the information and deciding how much should be presented

in a module. According to Dick and Carey (1978) this depends on the characteristics of the learners, variety to be integrated and what information is to be presented.

The learning of a language in the classroom should be carefully graded to the knowledge of the students. Selection and gradation should be based on pedagogical grounds (teachability), on linguistic grounds (complexity), and on the communication needs of the learner (utility) (Corder, 1968). The language addressed to the students should be abundant and mostly well formed (Bellugi & Brown, 1964). It should be repetitive and simplified (Snow & Ferguson, 1977). It should also be easy to understand and marked by intentional clarity (Slobin, 1975).

Balcom and Bridges (1982) suggest that a functional approach should be used to integrate reality in communication in language study in order to avoid the many constraints found in a classroom. The functional approach allows you to choose a main function or situation and use the two elements as the parameters for the development of units (Balcom & Bridges, 1982).

Breen and Candlin's (1980) criteria for the selection of unit or subject matter should be based on content whereas sequencing should be based on activities, suggesting that the internal structures of such teaching strategy be cyclical and not hierarchical. The skills should not be separated in blocks. Any subdivisions should be done in terms of activities, not with content, and continuity should reside within each activity and from one activity to another (Breen & Candlin, 1980). Therefore, learning to guide and structure a discussion in order to elicit creative student talk and to encourage students to clarify or develop ideas without interrupting the verbal interaction (Krumm, 1980)

would be examples of bringing about continuity within the activities.

According to Reigeluth (1984) there are many ways to sequence instruction. The strategy selected depends at what dimension one is concerned with. He suggests in the 'elaboration theory' that for each step: selecting, sequencing or synthesizing, a different task analysis be used. The task analysis chosen must vary on whether the information is procedural, theoretical or conceptual, then the sequence is arranged from simple to complex, spiral or cyclical starting with the fundamental and from the general to the most inclusive concepts, respectively.

Thompson (1982), for example, outlines a general framework where one chooses a topic according to the background, needs and the abilities of the students, then decides on the functions. The function chosen is further subdivided into three categories: what will the learner be expected to do; who it will be communicated to; and how is he expected to communicate. Structures and vocabulary are then chosen with respect to the chosen topic and functions. Finally, the choice of activity is unlimited and chosen to interest and motivate the learner.

Within a classroom, the needs of the group dictate one instructional track, but according to Hammerly (1982), within one track there should be full attention to individual differences (p. 107). Individual differences are complex characteristics which are manifested by the learners when allowed to interact with alternative instructional treatments (Snow, 1977). Snow's study on aptitude treatment interaction supports the idea that many different treatments aimed at the same goal are needed in instruction.

Wright and Pyatte (1983) feel that selecting and arranging content to engage learner's cognitive processes is a challenge. However, they

offer a technique to organize content to stimulate and to facilitate learning, assimilation, retention and subsequent use of the materials.

For example, it is possible to increase effectiveness and learning through the way materials are laid-out, displayed, colored, typographed, or on how descriptors are used and the use of thematic titles.

The pre-instructional activities, the sequencing and structuring of information will affect the learner's willingness and possible level of participation and feedback. Only if the interaction between the instruction and the learner occurs, will feedback be positive and in return feedback of the performance be provided to the learner.

Student participation. Central to several of the current theories is the view of the language learner as an active contributor to the learning process (Breen & Candlin, 1980; Stern, 1980; Krumm, 1980). Communicative interaction requires the learners, teachers, text and activities not only to participate but also to co-operate, interpret and share. This interaction, according to Breen and Candlin (1980), depends on the kind of activities the learner receives. The activities undertaken in the classroom must be objectively examined in terms of the degree to which they simply get students to manipulate or to practice certain structures, or promote communication. The input from the environment acts on the learner, and the learner must be allowed to interact. Communicative interaction is essential to the internalization of the language, that is, the learner must become active and dynamic within the overall communication system, as further explained in Zamel's (1981), Lysakowski and Walberg's (1982), and Lavi's (1983, 1984) recent research.

Young (1982) feels that participation can occur in covert and overt ways. Covertly, the participation by the learner is difficult to observe,

i.e., activities such as listening or thinking. Overtly, the participation is observed directly by the way the learner expresses, responds, performs or creates. Young (1982) claims that increasing the overt participation, the covert participation of the learner automatically increases because they are directly related. She suggests several strategies to increase participation with various techniques such as:

- (1) delivery: embedded questions, simulation gaming, relevance, objectives and advanced organizers;
- (2) review: self-paced review or group review;
- (3) practice: interactive practice, role-play, self-drill strategy, structured student-to-student practice;
- (4) evaluation: self-evaluation, peer evaluation and learner generated questions;
- (5) student management: course maps, student maintained record keeping and student managers.

As previously mentioned, central to the learning of language through the communicative approach is participation. Simulation has been very useful in education in that it actively involves the learner in making decisions while playing roles and adopting attitudes or operating the simulation. The simulation is a simplified version of the real object, processes, or complex systems (Romizowski, 1974) which requires the learners "to operate and manipulate the model in order to learn" (p. 291). Games refer to play which comprise rules and decided skills with an element of competition. Games offer challenge, complexity, variety and are useful to renew interest (Megarry, 1978). Megarry states that if the teachers want "active participation in the teaching/learning process, take responsibility for their own actions, their own learning and to some

extent, their own assessment, ... and have freedom to make mistakes and discover their strength and weaknesses," (p. 4), she suggests a very useful tool is gaming and simulation, and is supported by Orbach (1978, 1980). Maley (1980) also claims that to teach communicative competence, relevant materials are needed and must provide for practice and full involvement. These activities are built on functions such as dialogue, letters, recipes and varied authentic motivational materials. Finally, Dick and Carey (1978) also emphasizes the component of practice as an essential step to allow students to participate. Practice is instrumental in creating the premises for evaluation and feedback.

Feedback. Feedback is defined according to Travers (1977) as that "information the learner obtains about the usefulness, or effectiveness, of appropriateness of his response." (p. 45). There are many different ways to give feedback, it is not just stating 'right' or 'wrong' and 'good' or 'bad', i.e., reinforcing events are rewards and punishment based on the reinforcement approach by theorists such as Thorndike and Skinner (Le François, 1979; Travers, 1977). Recently, researchers have shown that feedback does not consist of just informing the students whether it was correct or incorrect but rather informing the student about the performance and furthermore, giving attention to redirect the intended behavior of the learner towards the correct performance (Zamel, 1981; Lysakowski & Walberg, 1982). Lysakowski and Walberg refer to it as 'corrective feedback', Hullen (1980) argues that correctness is an intralingual norm and does not guarantee communication (p. 18). ~~That is,~~ in the communicative approach errors are not viewed negatively but as evidence of learning and learning strategies, as opposed to the traditional approach, which views errors as ignorance or lack of application on the part of students. Corder (1978) suggests, however, that:

Until we are able to give a linguistic account of the nature of 'learners' errors, we can neither propose pedagogical measures to deal with them nor infer from them anything about the process of learning... We need 1) a qualitative linguistic description of errors, 2) a qualitative statement of the relative frequency of each type of error, 3) some evaluation of the gravity of each type of error so that we can undertake appropriate remedial measures.

Because correction is not a natural aspect of communication, other researchers suggest that global errors which 'violate rules involving structure of sentence' and affect comprehension should be corrected (Burt & Kiposky, 1974; Burt, 1975). Zamel (1981) feels that during language instruction errors should be ignored in favor of continued practice with correct response. However, any correct response given should be redundant. Feedback should be redundant to allow the student to recognize distinctions and association through the use of different sources. However, caution must be taken when choosing different channels of communication because it does not in itself reduce ambiguity (Zamel, 1981). Sonnenschein's (1984) studies on children suggest that structured redundancy is easier than differentiating redundancy because learners have less information to interpret and recognize, especially in complex situations. According to Lysakowski and Walberg (1982), three basic principles underlie the practice of corrective feedback:

- 1) students should not waste their time practicing incorrect responses;
- 2) the teacher's time is used efficiently by diagnosing and remedying difficulties, implying an interactive relationship between the teacher and the student, and
- 3) students should master one unit of instruction

at a time. (p. 561).

Testing

Evaluation is a very necessary part of the process of teaching and learning. It should serve to evaluate the learner's progress and to evaluate instruction (Dick & Carey, 1978). Testing is not a form of teaching but a form of control. Feedback and evaluation are a function of definite learning objectives and according to Lavi (1984) 'it is the task of the instructor to make known to the learner what is demanded of him.'

Instructional objectives. The fundamental component of a successful instructional program are the objectives. Depending on the instructional developer, over the years a variation of terms has been used interchangeably with objectives, for example, instructional, learner, performance, behavioral, functional, educational, and terminal objective. The inconsistency in technical terminology can be the source of confusion according to Roberts (1982). Further variations are also found with the components that make up an objective. Rogers' (1980) study on preference of alternative objective statements for the same task showed that experienced practitioners can't really agree on what an objective should contain. Thus, depending on whose book or model one uses, the language differs.

"To overcome the difficulty of language ambiguity in statements of topic purposes, one must move towards performance objectives" (Gagné & Briggs, 1979). However, research has shown objectives to provide the basis for (1) selecting or designing instructional content and procedures, (2) evaluating or assessing the success of the instruction and (3) organizing the student's own efforts and activities for the accomplishment of the important instructional intents (Mager, 1975). According to Steiner (1975), objectives provide criteria for instruction because they

specify (1) the behaviors to be taught, (2) strategy for instruction and (3) criteria for evaluating student at the end of instruction.

The final intention of an objective, therefore, is that it provides a guideline and formal structure towards an observable performance on the part of the instructor, learner, or to whom it may concern.

Performance objectives are a description of a behavior that learners may exhibit before considering them competent (Bloom, 1961; Krathwohl, 1964; Mager, 1975). Performance is measurable and the relationship with the objectives provides feedback both to the learner and the instructional system. With behaviorally stated objectives, both the student and teacher can accurately evaluate progress and the teacher can determine the effectiveness of the instructional program.

Evaluation

One of the functions of evaluation is to determine the effectiveness of the instructional methods and materials. In recent years, research and development in education has discussed two types of evaluation, 'formative' and 'summative', to differentiate between evaluation used to improve the instructional strategies and materials while in progress and that which examines the final product (Gronlund, 1977; Kemp, 1977).

Although, as stated by Eash (1969, p. 18), "it has been an unquestioned truism among educators that better instructional materials produce an improvement in learning", without the assessment of these instructional materials, it should not be assumed that they are successful in achieving the present objectives. Popham (1973) believes that much of educational ineffectiveness which exists in the schools can be attributed to the lack of verification of the procedures and techniques used. It is thus critical to integrate both forms of evaluation into both educational research and practice.

Formative evaluation. Research for years has suggested that each individual student may need very different types and qualities of instructions with which to learn. Therefore, the quality of instruction is determined by the degree to which the presentation, explanation and ordering of elements of the task to be learned increases learning (Bloom, Hastings & Madaus, 1971). Performance of the learner may be appraised formally by means of tests (Gagné, 1977). According to Gronlund (1977), "formative tests are typically designed to measure the extent to which students have mastered the learning outcomes of a rather limited segment of instruction, such as a unit or a textbook chapter" (p. 3). A formative test is usually given during instruction which acts as feedback to the instructor, with the weaknesses and strengths of the learning sequence, procedures, materials, the pacing, difficulty of the instruction and the level of interest it arouses in learners (Kemp, 1977). In addition to providing feedback to the instructor, it has an enormous amount of influence on the learner. According to Gronlund, it 1) increases the anticipation of the learner which improves student motivation, 2) increases the retention and transfer of learning, and 3) increases self-understanding because the student gains insight into the things he/she can do. Gagné (1977) cautions educators by noting, "that while tests have several important functions in programs of instruction, they are not substitutes for the elicitation of performance which occurs as an endpoint in the learning act" (p. 297).

Language testing. There are many testing techniques available such as: oral interview, short-answer item, dictation, translation, multiple-choice and composition. According to Fougere (1983) the use of four skills require the knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Fougere feels that 'tests should evaluate one specific skill at a time' (p. 218)

however, because most testing techniques require more than one skill, she quotes from Harris and Palmer (1970) that the print alternatives should be kept lexically and grammatically simple 'to minimize the reading factor.'

Teaching for communicative competence, where the focus of the course is on communication, Valette (1981) agrees with Oller's use of pragmatic tests which are defined as,

...any procedure or task that can conform to the normal contextual constraints of that language and which requires the learner to relate sequences of linguistic elements via pragmatic mappings to extralinguistic context. (p. 164)

Although, all four skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing are necessary for communication, according to Valette (1981) an important factor underlying these skills is the individual's "global language proficiency"; where it requires the student to process natural samples of language within certain time constraints. However, Valette (1981) finds discrete-point items and single-skill tests useful to point out in what component of the language or linguistic elements problems exist.

The types of single-skill test includes the following: 1) listening to recorded passages and indicating whether corresponding statements are true or false; 2) talking about a picture or a series of pictures; 3) reading a passage and answering content and interpretations, and 4) writing a letter or short essay according to a set of general instructions or guidelines, whereas global language proficiency testing includes the following: 1) dictation read at natural speed, 2) noise tests and 3) cloze tests.

In the teaching of communicative competence much debate has been on

what skills should be tested and how. Bachman and Palmer (1982) have found that grammar and vocabulary are necessary for cohesion and organization and therefore are functions of the organizational aspects of language. Porter (1982) outlined ten paragraphs to summarize the major implication found in literature on central features for test format and tasks, scoring techniques and the presentation and interpretation of test results. Porter (1983) sums up that the characteristics underlying the testing of communicative proficiency is authenticity and complexity. He concludes that no single test is good for all learners and that the tests should be based on global language tasks. Therefore, assessment becomes subjective and reliability must be dealt with in providing a profile score and not a global score.

Summative Evaluation. The purpose of summative evaluation is to provide for measure of a representative sample of all the learning tasks included in the instruction (Gronlund, 1977). Summative evaluation helps to determine the value or worth of the instructional materials or method. This is done by evaluating the materials in terms of content coverage, statement of objectives, and the relationship between the testing instruments and the objectives (Dick & Carey, 1978). According to Dick and Carey (1978) summative evaluation of a method or instructional strategy can be done by comparing pretest and posttest score to observe if any differences exist in the amount of learning acquired. Furthermore, attitudinal questionnaires are used to help indicate what areas of the instructions were effective or ineffective and to help indicate what the learner's reactions are and how they best feel it should be changed. The purpose is to determine the cumulative value of the instruction (Kemp, 1977; Gronlund, 1977; Mehrans & Lehman, 1978).

CHAPTER III

Experimental Design, Methods and Materials

Sample

The experimental subjects were students attending elementary Italian courses given by the Italian-Canadian Patronage for Assistance to Immigrants (P.I.C.A.I.) on Saturday mornings. Nine groups of fourth grade students from seven different schools were randomly chosen to represent the various districts in Montreal. The sample consisted of both male and female subjects, ages nine to eleven years. These students attended either French or English elementary school daily. The nine teachers were chosen at random, and, therefore represented the general population characteristics of the sample of teachers in the organization. The student sample comprised of 159 subjects throughout the study.

Design

The quasi-experimental research design included three experimental variables, instructional strategy, school ability and motivational level. The instructional strategies were the following: (1) the systematic instructional approach; (2) the objective-based approach and (3) the traditional instructional approach. The nine groups which participated in the study were thus randomly designated to one of three teaching methods:

1. Systematic Teaching Strategy (STS), n = 63
2. Objective-Based Teaching Strategy (O-BTS), n = 52
3. Traditional Teaching Strategy-Control (TTSC), n = 44.

To control for influences of school ability and motivational level each of the subjects was assessed and the results blocked, for general school ability (above average, average, or below average) and for

motivational level (high, medium, low). A pre- and posttest measure on four abilities, comprehension, grammar, spelling and composition, was used to assess each subject for academic performance (learning) in all the cells participating in the study.

The design of the study thus consisted of a 3 Instructional Strategy (systematic, objective-based and traditional) x 3 School Ability Level (above average, average and below average) x 3 Motivational Level (high, medium, and low) model. (see Figure 3). The four dependent variables were comprehension, grammar, spelling and composition scores. The pre-tests were used as covariates and posttests as the dependent variables in a 3 x 3 x 3 multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA).

Materials

Systematic Teaching Strategy (STS)

The three teachers in this group followed an instructional guide designed by the author using Dick and Carey's systematic approach model (see Figure 1). The guide consisted of ten, carefully designed lesson plans. Each lesson stated the general purpose for teaching the chosen topic, specified the learning objectives to be achieved, and listed the subject content that supported the objectives. The teacher directed the instruction according to the instructional goals, following the lesson plan given with the activities and materials. The goal was to move students through a sequenced set of materials or tasks. Although the teacher guided the students through a structured lesson plan with conversations and discussions, textbook-lecture presentation, games, roleplays and simulations, textbook/workbook activities for classroom practice, assessment and feedback through activities at home, the environment was designed to not be authoritarian. Interaction was

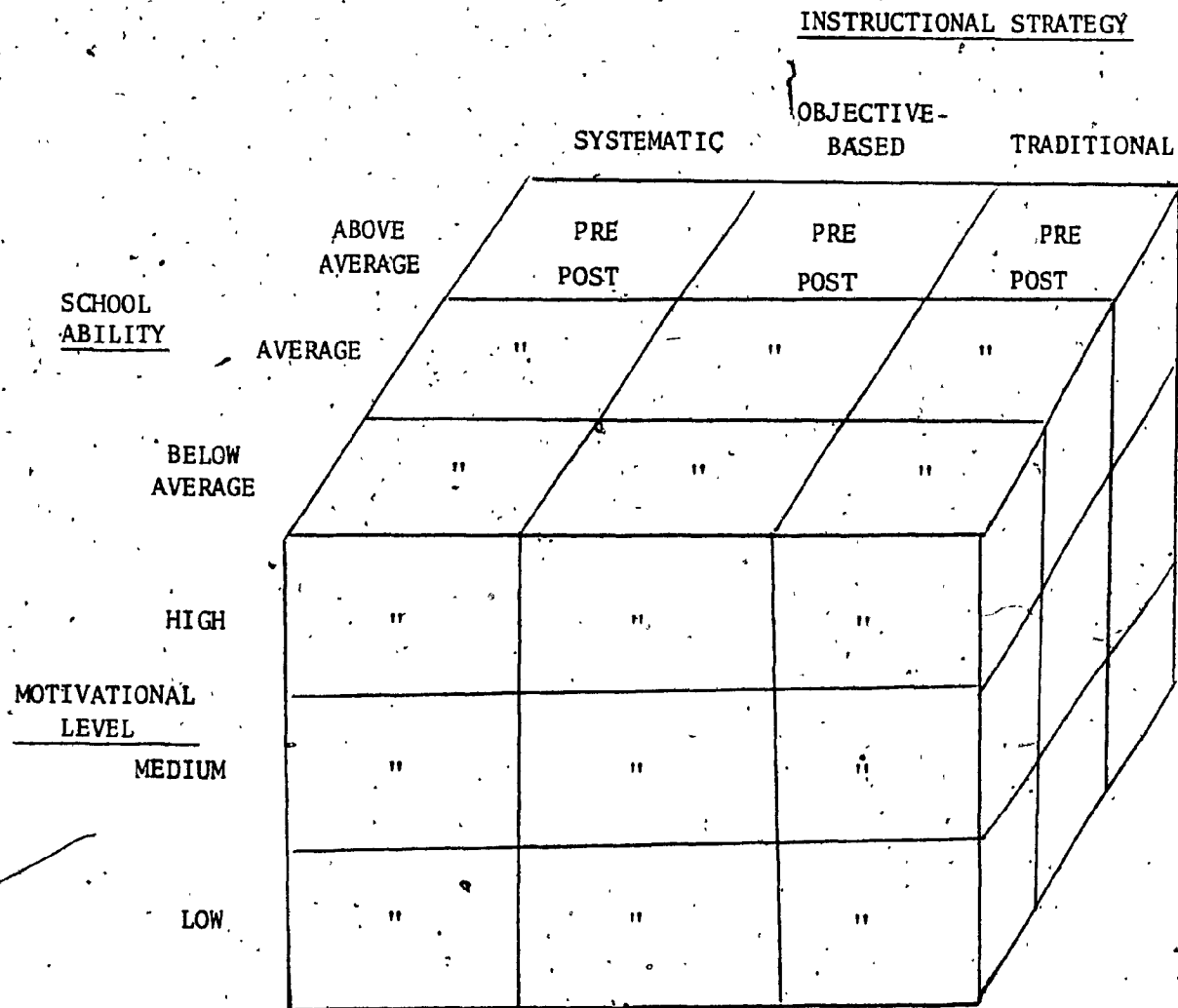


FIGURE 3: The Experimental Design

structured within the lessons and strongly encouraged. Therefore, both the instructor and the materials shared the instructional duties and provided for motivational activities. Finally, evaluative instruments were embedded throughout the lessons for the student and the teacher, with a view to revise and re-evaluate any phase of the plan that needed improvement. Enrichment activities were included. The enrichment activities were directly related to the lesson objective but culturally oriented to be completed at home with parental guidance. The purpose was to get the learners to communicate with their parents. The enrichment activities were not scored but used for exposition at the end of the term. (All materials can be found in Appendix A.)

Objective-Based Strategy and Traditional Group

For this group, the teachers made use of the ten topics and the objectives given in the instructional guide (see Appendix B). The instructor received no lesson plan and no activities or materials to work with. The instructors were free to make use of the objectives as they pleased. The instructors were asked to base their lessons on the topics and objectives given.

The traditional strategy group acted as the control group. These groups represented the average fourth grade Italian courses given by instructors with no list of topics nor instructional objectives but only the general guidance issued by the P.I.C.A.I., as mentioned in the introduction. The instructors were expected to teach in their traditional method. These students represented the average Italo-Canadian student undergoing Italian language instruction by teachers of Italian origin who could serve as the norm.

Students from all three groups used the same textbook.

Instrumentation

Four categories of instruments were used for the students:

(1) to assess school ability (2) to assess motivation, (3) to measure achievement and (4) to measure attitude. Two instruments were completed by the teacher: (1) an attitude inventory, and (2) an evaluative questionnaire.

School Ability

All the students wrote the Otis-Lennon School Ability Test, Level Elementary, Grades 4 and 5, ages 9 and 10 (O-L.S.A.T.). The test at this level comprised several types of verbal and non-verbal items intended to sample a wide variety of mental processes. Seventy multiple-choice items sampled verbal, figural, quantitative reasoning, and verbal comprehension ability. Practice exercises were provided for item types that might have been unfamiliar to examinees. The items were arranged in 'spiral omnibus' form and a single score was derived to summarize test performance. The test was available and administered in both official languages: English and French. (see Appendix C for a copy of each). All of the following forms of scores were calculated: raw score, school ability index, percentile score and stanine. The purpose of this test in this study was "to assess examinees' ability to cope successfully with learning tasks, to classify them for school learning functions, and to evaluate their achievement in relation to the talents they bring to school learning situations" (Otis-Lennon, 1979). The raw scores which could range from 0 to 70 were used to rank the students in 'Above Average', 'Average' and 'Below Average' groupings, by equally dividing the groups into three. The test was a 45-minute, timed, group test.

Motivational (Attitudinal) Test.

An attitudinal survey was also administered to measure motivation of

all the students. The Arlin-Hill Attitude Survey, Elementary (Intermediate) Level, grades 4 - 6, is a cartoon-method and verbal version questionnaire to assess affective outcomes of educational treatment. It is a short, reliable and enjoyable measure (Arlin and Hills, 1974). The instrument was available only in English. Thus, to accommodate French speaking students, the questionnaire was translated in French by a knowledgeable bilingual educator. (see Appendix D for English and French copy). Three sub-instruments, (1) Attitudes towards Language Arts, (2) Attitudes toward Learning Processes, and (3) Attitudes toward Teachers were administered to all the subjects. Each of the sub-questionnaires consisted of 15 Likert Scale questions. The total raw score (45 items) of the three sub-tests was used to rank the students in 'High', 'Medium' and 'Low' motivational level groupings, by equally dividing the groups into three. Subjects were asked to initialize their questionnaires to allow for the researcher to match the score with the other tests used in the study. The total questionnaire was timed at 20 minutes.

Performance Test

Four sub-evaluative instruments: comprehension, grammar, spelling and composition, were developed as the performance test for the study. The four sub-tests were given as one performance test but scored separately. This performance test was generated as a general evaluative instrument with respect to the general objectives of the course. The purpose of this type of test was to observe if the students were capable of transferring their linguistic knowledge from the ten themes studied in the ten weeks for a new thematic area. The same performance test was given for the pre-test and posttest. The format of the test varied from item to item depending on which specific language skill was measured. These are described below.

Listening comprehension. A short story chosen from children's books aged nine to eleven was transcribed on tape. The students were asked to listen to the tape (twice) and asked to answer ten related multiple-choice questions. (see Appendix E for copy). It is a timed (20 minutes), group test. The raw scores were converted into percentages.

Reading-comprehension grammar test. The reading-comprehension grammar test was composed of nine sections in which the subject was given the same text to read and tested on the ability to summarize the story read by re-organizing the outline given, re-organizing sentences, defining the vocabulary by multiple choice, identifying parts of speech in a sentence, placing the right adjectives next to the nouns in the text, identifying and conjugating the verbs given in the text in its infinitive form, and substituting the articles in the singular form next to the singular nouns given and then converting them in their plural form. (see Appendix F for a copy). Ninety-six items were scored and converted into a percentage score.

Picture vocabulary-spelling test. The picture vocabulary-spelling test was composed of two sections: (1) pictures of nouns and (2) pictures of action verbs, 17 and 8 items, respectively. The subjects were required to identify the pictures and write in the correct form the noun or the action observed. (see Appendix G for a copy).

Overall, 25 items were scored and converted into percentage scores. Both the grammar and spelling tests were timed (1½ hour), group tests.

Writing-composition test. A group of six scrambled pictures which told a story was presented to each student. The student was asked to unscramble the pictures and to re-organize the story into a logical order. The student was then asked to write a sentence to describe each frame,

and to choose a title for the story. In total, the writing-composition test took 45 minutes and the examiner structured the students' time as follows: 10 minutes were allotted to re-organize the story and 35 minutes to organize and write the overall composition. (See Appendix H for a copy).

Scoring was done by trained markers, according to punctuation, length of sentence, vocabulary, spelling, sentence accuracy, sentence complexity and variety, organization, originality, and overall performance (Prater & Padia, 1983). Each composition was marked by two different markers, working independently. The average of the student's two scores from both markers on the overall dimension was used in the statistical analysis. (See Appendix I).

Attitude questionnaire

Student's attitude towards Italian courses. The attitude questionnaire towards Italian Language Courses was completed by all the groups. It consisted of three sub-questionnaires: (1) 8 items were related to the attitude towards the language and the purpose of taking the courses as a whole, (2) 21 items on the attitudes towards the learning processes observed in the current year, i.e., the last 10 weeks of the programme, (see Appendix J for a copy) and (3) 15 items on the attitudes toward their current teacher taken from the Arlin-Hill Attitude Questionnaire and transcribed in singular form (see Appendix K for a copy). Students were asked to initialize the questionnaires and therefore matched with their respective groupings. Sub-questionnaires (1) and (2) consisted of a total of 29 items on a Likert scale of 1 to 5 (totally disagree to totally agree). The results were tabulated for each question. The results on sub-questionnaire (3), consisting of 15 items on a Likert

scale of 1 to 4 (always to never), were scored and an overall composite score was given for each subject. Each question was scored on a 0 - 3 basis. All statements considered positive were scored from 3 for agreement to 0 for disagreement and vice versa for negative statements. The total score could range from 0 (lowest, most negative attitude) to 45 (highest attitude). As a rule of thumb, scores of 30 or above are considered desirable by the authors (Arlin & Hill, 1976). On the last item, the students were asked to express preferences and state an opinion about the programme.

Attitudes expressed by the teachers. The nine teachers who participated in the study were administered the Teacher Attitude Inventory (Whitmore, 1974), intended to identify two dichotomous styles of teaching: traditional (teacher-centered teaching) and experimental (pupil-centered teaching), (see Appendix L). It consists of 24 items in which each item states two opposite controversial issues with a scale of 1 to 5. The subject must choose between the two statements and mark an 'X' in the adjacent columns (1, 2, 3 or 4, 5) indicating strong agreement or mild agreement with that statement or no preference or equal agreement in the third column. Group results will be given for the overall questionnaire.

The Instructional Guide Evaluative Questionnaire was administered to the three teachers who participated in the S.T.S. group (see Appendix M for a copy). The instrument consisted of 10 items with a Likert scale of 1 to 5 and seven open-ended questions. The results were tabulated in a form appropriate to each question, whether by rank-order or as summaries of opinions expressed. Other evaluative comments were given by the other teachers who participated in the study and are therefore stated as such.

Procedure

When random assignment of the groups to participate in the study had been completed, the teachers chosen for the study were assigned at random to one of the three instructional strategies. Prior to the opening of the courses in September, the teachers were contacted individually and the nature and purpose of the research were outlined and discussed. Those teachers assigned to the systematic instructional approach were met on three training sessions to read, discuss and ask any questions pertaining the procedures and difficulties found in following the instructional guide. These instructors were asked to write down any positive, negative or suggestive comments at the end of each lesson during the study. One session was spent with those teachers assigned to the objective-based instructional approach, individually. They were given a list of objectives for ten lessons and were asked to organize and plan their activities and materials in relation to the objectives given. Those assigned to the traditional-control group received no instructional guide nor objectives but were notified that students would be tested. All the teachers were asked to complete the Teachers Attitude Inventory.)

Nine test administrators were assigned to administer the tests. They were given specific instructions to administer all of the above tests. The O-LSAT and A-HAST were administered to all students on the first Saturday of classes. In the second session, all four sub-tests of the Italian Performance Test was also administered to all students before the ten week instructional period began. At the end of the ten week period, in December 1983 the four sub-tests from IPT and the Attitude Questionnaire were administered to all students. At the end of the session the teachers from the STS were asked to complete the instructional

guide evaluative questionnaire and to return all the comments that were reported throughout the study. The teachers from the O-BTS were asked to submit any comments pertaining to the use of the instructional objectives.

All subjects in the experimental classes were administered the treatment for a ten week period. The subjects in the control group continued normal activities with no special treatment during the same ten week period. Classes were held every Saturday mornings from 9:00 a.m. to 12:00 p.m. with a 15 minute recess.

CHAPTER IV

Analysis of Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of three instructional strategies on learning Italian as a heritage language. In addition, the effects of school ability and motivational level were also examined. First covered below are the reliability estimates of the dependent measures. Then presented are the results of the main comparisons of the design. Finally, attitude data are listed.

Reliability Estimate

Test-retest reliability was measured to observe the stability or consistency of the test scores over time. The correlation coefficient, were the following: comprehension, $r = +.67$; grammar, $r = +.81$; and spelling, $r = +.72$.

The Kuder-Richardson Formula (K-R21) and the standard error of measurement were computed to estimate the internal consistency of the content. The reliability estimates were the following: comprehension, $r = +.49$, SE = .75; grammar, $r = +.92$, SE = 4.83; and spelling, $r = +.93$, SE = 1.22.

Inter-scorer reliability was measured on the composition evaluation scores. The correlation was performed on total scores for all the samples. The overall reliability index was .80 and standard error of measurement = .44. The results indicate that the interpretation of overall sample of tests was sufficiently consistent.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

The main analysis was a three group multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The advantage of calculating a MANOVA over a univariate analysis is that multivariate analysis considers the relation-

ship among the dependent measures. For all analyses, the dependent variables and covariates were total scores across the four measures: comprehension, spelling, grammar and composition. This analysis procedure also statistically adjusts the Ss in the experimental and control groups and were analysed after taking into account and making appropriate statistical adjustments for initial differences on the pretests. The independent variables consisted of 1) three teaching strategies: systematic, objective-based and traditional; 2) the subjects' school ability as indicated by the scores on the Otis-Lennon School Ability Test: above average, average and below average and 3) motivational level as indicated by the Arlin-Hill Attitude Questionnaire: high, medium and low.

Means and standard deviations of the teaching strategies groups for the four dependent variables, pre- and posttest, are presented in Table 1. Tables 2 and 3 present the means and standard deviations for school ability and motivational level, respectively.

The MANOVA analysis revealed a statistically significant overall difference using the four dependent variables for the main effects separating the three teaching strategy groupings, Hotelling's $T^2 = 1.09$, $F(8,248) = 16.92$, $p < .001$; the three levels of the Ss school ability, $T^2 = .26$, $F(8,248) = 4.12$, $p < .001$; and the three levels of the Ss motivational level, $T^2 = .14$, $F(8,248) = 2.13$, $p < .035$. No significant interaction effects were obtained. (See Table 4).

Listening Comprehension Test

A summary of the analysis of covariance given by the MANOVA analysis on the Listening-Comprehension test is presented in Table 5.

There were no significant differences found for the main effects:

TABLE 1

Summary of Raw and Adjusted Means and Standard Deviations
for the four Dependent Variables and Covariates
by Teaching Strategies

Teaching Strategies										
		STS			O-BTS			TTS		
		PRE	POST	Adj.	PRE	POST	Adj.	PRE	POST	Adj.
		(N = 63)			(N = 52)			(N = 44)		
Comprehension	\bar{X}	77.62	93.65	95.04	78.27	81.54	83.75	85.00	89.32	85.70
	SD	19.24	10.52		19.48	18.51		17.72	15.46	
Grammar	\bar{X}	35.29	55.86	56.63	28.14	33.46	40.13	42.55	49.09	41.66
	SD	15.35	16.61		17.14	20.83		16.19	18.04	
Spelling	\bar{X}	36.44	60.92	62.94	35.96	38.85	43.68	50.82	57.91	51.05
	SD	20.35	17.99		23.27	20.22		19.83	21.76	
Tema (Composition)	\bar{X}	2.11	2.94	2.89	1.58	1.88	2.25	2.41	2.57	2.24
	SD	1.03	1.06		1.45	1.44		1.17	1.06	

TABLE 2

Summary of Raw and Adjusted Means and Standard Deviations

for the four Dependent Variables and

Covariates by School Ability

		School Ability								
		Above Average			Average			Below Average		
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				Adj.			Adj.			Adj.
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
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				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
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				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
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				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
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		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
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				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)
		PRE		POST	PRE		POST	PRE		POST
				(N = 53)			(N = 53)			(N = 53)

TABLE 3
Summary of Raw and Adjusted Means and Standard Deviations
for the four Dependent Variables and Covariates
by Motivational Level

		Motivation									
		High				Medium				Low	
		PRE	POST	Adj.	PRE	POST	Adj.	PRE	POST		
		(N = 53)				(N = 53)				(N = 53)	
Comprehension	\bar{X}	78.49	86.98	87.53	83.58	93.20	91.52	77.55	85.28	86.42	
	SD	20.60	16.71		17.11	9.96		19.11	18.25		
Grammar	\bar{X}	35.23	46.25	46.20	37.72	51.36	48.64	31.93	42.40	45.15	
	SD	19.42	23.76		16.01	18.23		15.17	19.16		
Spelling	\bar{X}	39.26	53.17	53.54	44.68	59.63	56.98	36.85	45.81	48.07	
	SD	23.47	24.87		21.59	19.17		20.75	19.79		
Composition	\bar{X}	2.00	2.66	2.67	2.01	2.43	2.40	2.03	2.38	2.40	
	SD	1.31	1.36		1.18	1.85		1.28	1.29		

TABLE 4

Summary of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)
on Comprehension, Grammar, Spelling and Composition

Variables	F	DF	Significance of F
<u>Main Effects:</u>			
Teaching Method	16.92	8,248	.001
School Ability	4.12	8,248	.001
Motivational Level	2.13	8,248	.034
<u>Interaction Effects:</u>			
TMET x School Ability	.69	16,494	.799
TMET x Motivational Level	.97	16,494	.483
SA x Motivational Level	1.41	16,494	.130
TMET x SA x Motivational Level	1.01	32,494	.450
Within Cells Regression	21.38	16,494	.001

TABLE 5

Summary of Analyses of Covariance for Comprehension Test

Source of Variation	MS	DF	F	Significance of F
<u>Main Effects:</u>				
TMET	1949.99	2,128	13.88	.001
School Ability	20.69	2,128	.15	.863
Motivational Level	358.76	2,128	2.55	.082
<u>Interaction Effects:</u>				
TMET x School Ability	71.74	4,128	.51	.728
TMET x Motivational Level	386.37	4,128	2.75	.034
SA x Motivational Level	159.36	4,128	1.13	.343
TMET x SA x Motivational Level	45.45	8,128	.32	.956
<u>Covariate</u>				
Comprehension		1,128	38.86	.001

school ability and motivational level groupings.

There were significant differences among the teaching strategies, $F(2,128) = 13.88, p < .001$. Results of the Tukey tests indicate that the systematic teaching strategy grouping ($\bar{X} = 95.04$) scored statistically higher than both the O-BTS grouping ($\bar{X} = 83.75$) and the TTS grouping ($\bar{X} = 85.70$) whereas the latter groups did not score significantly different from each other for the magnitude of the effects. (See Table 6).

Reading-Comprehension Grammar Test

A summary of the analysis of covariance given by the MANOVA analysis on the Reading-Comprehension Grammar test is presented in Table 7. Significant differences, $F(2,128) = 48.72, p < .001$, were found among the three teaching strategy groupings. Results of the Tukey tests indicate that the O-BTS grouping ($\bar{X} = 40.13$) and TTS grouping ($\bar{X} = 41.66$) did not score significantly different from each other but both scored significantly lower than the STS grouping ($\bar{X} = 56.63$) at α crit. = .01. (See Table 7).

A main effect was also obtained for the school ability level groupings, $F(2,128) = 6.60, p < .002$. Results of the Tukey tests indicate that the below average grouping ($\bar{X} = 43.08$) did not score significantly from the average group ($\bar{X} = 46.94$) but scored significantly lower than the above average group ($\bar{X} = 49.98$) at α crit. = .05. However, no significant differences were found for the latter groups. (See Table 8).

No significant differences were noted for the main effect, motivational level.

Picture Vocabulary-Spelling Test

A summary of the analysis of covariance given by the MANOVA analysis on the Picture Vocabulary-Spelling test is presented in Table 9.

TABLE 6

Results of the Multiple Comparison Test of
Mean Scores on Comprehension Test by
the Main Effect: Teaching Strategy

	Adj. Means	Teaching Strategy		
		O-BASED N = 52	TTS N = 44	STS N = 63
Main Effect				
Teaching Strategy				
O-BASED	83.75		N.S.	7.131 **
TTS	85.70			5.625 **
STS	95.04			

**Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 7

Summary of Analysis of Covariance for Grammar Test

Source of Variation	MS	DF	F	Significance of F
<u>Main Effects:</u>				
TMET	4638.14	2,128	48.72	.001
School Ability	628.14	2,128	6.60	.002
Motivational Level	186.57	2,128	1.96	.145
<u>Interaction Effects:</u>				
TMET x School Ability	110.60	4,128	1.16	.331
TMET x Motivational Level	32.23	4,128	.34	.852
SA x Motivational Level	84.52	4,128	.89	.473
TMET x SA x Motivational Level	230.98	8,128	2.43	.018
<u>Covariate</u>				
Grammar		1,128	89.13	.001

TABLE 8

Results of the Multiple Comparison Test of
Mean Scores on Grammar Test by the
Main Effects: Teaching Strategy and School Ability

Main Effect	Adj. Means	Teaching Strategy		
		O-BASED N = 52	TTS N = 44	STS N = 63
Teaching Strategy				
O-BASED	40.13		N.S.	11.976**
TTS	41.66			10.362**
STS	56.63			
School Ability	Adj. Means	School Ability		
		Below Average N = 53	Average N = 53	Above Average N = 53
School Ability				
Below Average	43.03		N.S.	3.952*
Average	46.94			N.S.
Above Average	49.98			

**Significant at the .01 level.

*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 9

Analysis of Covariance for Spelling Test

Source of Variation	MS	DF	F	Significance of F
<u>Main Effects:</u>				
TMET	5529.97	2, 128	27.83	.001
School Ability	642.93	2, 128	3.23	.043
Motivational Level	1106.69	2, 128	5.57	.005
<u>Interaction Effects:</u>				
TMET x School Ability	171.26	4, 128	86	.489
TMET x Motivational Level	188.48	4, 128	.95	.438
SA x Motivational Level	434.36	4, 128	2.19	.074
TMET x SA x Motivational Level	281.96	8, 128	1.42	.195
<u>Covariate</u>				
Spelling		1, 128	29.84	.001

Significant differences were noted for all three main effects:

Significant differences are observed, $F(2,128) = 27.83$, $p < .001$, separating the three teaching strategies. Results of the Tukey test indicates that the objective-based group ($\bar{X} = 43.68$) scored significantly lower than both the TTS grouping ($\bar{X} = 51.05$) α crit. = .05 and the STS group ($\bar{X} = 62.94$), α crit. = .01. The latter groups also scored significantly different from each other, respectively. (See Table 10).

Significant differences were observed for school ability, $F(2,128) = 3.24$, $p < .043$. However, results of the Tukey test (see Table 10) indicate that there are no significant differences among the three levels of school ability.

The main effect motivational level also indicated significant differences, $F(2,128) = 5.57$, $p < .005$. Results of the Tukey test indicate that only the low group ($\bar{X} = 48.07$) scored significantly lower than the medium grouping ($\bar{X} = 56.98$) at α crit. = .05. No significant differences were found with the high group ($\bar{X} = 53.54$) with either the low and medium level groups. (See Table 10).

Composition Test

A summary of the analysis of covariance for the composition test is presented in Table 11, where significant differences were obtained for all the main effects: teaching strategies and school ability.

Significant differences, $F(2,128) = 12.82$, $p < .001$, separate the teaching strategies. Results from the Tukey tests indicate that all three groupings are statistically different: STS ($\bar{X} = 2.94$) scored statistically higher than both TTS ($\bar{X} = 2.24$) and O-BTS grouping ($\bar{X} = 2.25$) at α crit. = .01. Whereas the latter groups did not score significantly different from each other. (See Table 12).

TABLE 1Q

Results of the Multiple Comparison Test of
 Mean Scores on Spelling Test by the Main Effects:
 Teaching Strategy, School Ability and Motivational Level

Teaching Strategy				
Main Effect	Adj. Means	O-BASED N = 52	TTS N = 44	STS N = 63
Teaching Strategy				
O-BASED	43.68		3.409*	9.741**
TTS	51.05			5.734**
STS	62.94			
School Ability				
	Adj. Means	Below Average N = 53	Average N = 53	Above Average N = 53
School Ability				
Below Average	51.42		N.S.	N.S.
Average	51.53			N.S.
Above Average	55.65			
Motivational Level				
	Adj. Means	Low N = 53	Medium N = 53	High N = 53
Motivational Level				
Low	48.07		3.891*	N.S.
Medium	56.98			N.S.
High	53.54			

*Significant at the .05 level

**Significant at the .01 level

TABLE 11

Summary of Analysis of Covariance for Composition Test

Source of Variation	MS	DF	F	Significance of F
<u>Main Effects:</u>				
TMET	7.93	2,128	12.82	.001
School Ability	6.14	2,128	9.91	.001
Motivational Level	.54	2,128	.87	.423
<u>Interaction Effects:</u>				
TMET x School Ability	.08	4,128	.13	.972
TMET x Motivational Level	.27	4,128	.44	.776
SA x Motivational Level	1.06	4,128	1.71	.153
TMET x SA x Motivational Level	.49	8,128	.80	.605
<u>Covariate</u>				
Composition		1,128	87.89	.001

TABLE 12

Results of the Multiple Comparison Test of
 Mean-Scores on Composition Test by the Main Effect:
 Teaching Strategy and School Ability

		Teaching Strategy		
		O-BASED	TTS	STS
Main Effect	Adj. Means	N = 52	N = 44	N = 63
Teaching Strategy				
O-BASED	2.25		N.S.	5.670**
TTS	2.24			5.854**
STS	2.89			
		School Ability		
		Below Average	Average	Above Average
School Ability	Adj. Means	N = 53	N = 53	N = 53
Below Average	2.30		N.S.	6.209**
Average	2.23			5.509**
Above Average	2.94			

*Significant at the .05 level

**Significant at the .01 level

Significant differences, $F(2,128) = 6.14$, $p < .001$, were obtained for school ability. The below average group ($\bar{X} = 2.30$) and the average group ($\bar{X} = 2.23$) both scored significantly lower than the above average group ($\bar{X} = 2.94$). However, both groups did not score significantly different from each other.

Summary of Results on the Four Italian Performance Test

The systematic teaching strategy grouping scored higher than the other two groups (O-BTS and TTS) in all four subtests: comprehension, grammar, spelling and composition, of the performance test. No significant differences were found between the objective-based and traditional teaching strategies with the exception of the spelling test.

The school ability level was also found to be a significant factor for the grammar and composition but not significant for spelling and the comprehension test. The above average school ability group scored significantly higher than the below average group in grammar and the average group as well for composition. However, in both tests no significant differences were found between the below average and the average school ability groups.

Significant differences were observed with motivational level, at α crit. = .05. The spelling test was found to contribute to the overall differences found. The medium group scored significantly higher than both the high and lower groups, respectively.

Attitude Questionnaire

Student's Attitudes towards Italian Courses

The attitude questionnaire was given to the students to get a better indication of how they felt about their courses and their teachers in the current year. All students were asked to respond to all the questions. The overall questionnaire was analyzed in two parts: 1) reasons for attending Italian classes and attitudes towards the processes in class, and 2) attitudes toward the teachers. Items one to twenty-nine, which excluded the attitudes toward the teacher, was crosstabulated and tested for significance.

Each question was crosstabulated by teaching strategy, school ability and motivational level. According to the Chi Square analysis, questions 1, 3, 4, 5, 14, 22, 26, 27 and 28 were found to be statistically significantly different among the teaching methods; questions 8 and 29 were significantly different by teaching strategy and school ability; question 20 was significantly different across the motivational level and question 25 was significantly different across the teaching strategies and the motivational variable. All remaining questions were not found to be significantly different on any of the variables. (See Appendix N).

Item 1. Responses by students overall, to whether they were happy to come to Italian school this year was generally very positive (63.5 percent). According to the analysis, however, there is a significant difference among the teaching strategy. The results showed that the most positive attitude was indicated by the systematic teaching strategy grouping.

Items 3 and 4. Although a generally positive attitude was indicated towards coming to school, 61.0 percent of the sample still felt they come because they are forced by their parents but show mixed feelings on

whether school is "fun" or not.

Items 5, 6 and 7. Overall, the students unanimously agreed (88.7 percent) that it is important for them to learn Italian in order to go to Italy. However, the traditional group rated slightly lower than the other two groups. All groups equally felt that it is important to learn the Italian language to be able to read Italian newspapers and magazines. Furthermore, 62.9 percent of the total sample indicate the necessity and importance of the language to communicate with the family, relatives and friends. Interestingly, significant differences were found among the motivational level groupings on this issue. The high and medium motivated grouping responded most positively to this question as compared to the low group.

Items 14 and 22. 54.1 percent of the total sample found the materials given interesting, and 35.2 percent of those who responded "strongly agreed or agreed" came from the systematic teaching strategy grouping. The objective-based grouping disagreed the most and the traditional group did not care. A majority of students (76.1 percent) expressed that they had the chance to participate in all the activities. The highest proportion of the positive responses were those subjects from the systematic teaching strategy grouping whereas the objective-based group responded the least positive. Significant differences were also found for motivational level. The crosstabulation demonstrate that both the high and medium level groupings responded positively towards the materials given. However, 60 percent of the low motivational level grouping indicated disagreement.

Items 24, 25, 26. All three items were found to be significantly different on whether the students felt they had enough chances to work with others in small groups; play a lot of interesting games; and finally

whether there was time to get bored. Overall, the systematic-TS grouping responded most positively to working in small groups and playing games, whereas the most negative responses were indicated by the traditional TS grouping, which felt that not enough of group work or games were played in class. Interestingly, the objective-based group's responded that they didn't care about playing games. Indication on whether they were bored was found to be significant only by motivational level. The highest group was the least bored, whereas the lowest group felt that there was plenty of time to get bored.

Item 27. Overall, 59.7 percent of the students do not feel they would prefer to come late to classes. However, the crosstabulation indicated a significant difference among the teaching strategies. The traditional group has the highest tendency for wanting to come to classes late whereas the systematic group showed the least indication to coming late to classes.

Items 10, 20 and 28. The crosstabulation by school ability indicated significant differences on whether the students understood what to do. Overall, students felt they did know what to do. The below average school ability groups indicated the least understanding of what should be done. Although students felt they knew what to do, only 48 percent cared to ask the teacher questions or what was done during their absence. Both the systematic and objective-based group showed a positive attitude towards wanting to know as compared to the traditional group. Furthermore, students felt that the teachers talked too much in all strategies. However, significant differences were found by motivational level. The 'low' and 'medium' level motivational groups indicate a strong agreement towards teachers talking too much. Also, the highest rate of not caring was found with the 'low' group.

Item 29. About 73 percent of the overall sample responded positively that they felt they had learned a lot this year. However, differences among the teaching strategies and school ability level were found. A very high percentage of students who responded on the positive scale came from the systematic-TS grouping and the above average group of students.

Item 30. The traditional group stated that they liked reading out loud and dictations the most and copying and writing the least. Most of them complained of doing too much writing, too much homework, and disliked memorizing poems and conjugating verbs.

The objective-based group enjoyed playing the games and reading the most. Like the traditional group, they complained that there was too much writing, too much homework, and disliked recopying and memorizing verbs the most.

The systematic group enjoyed the games and the exercises and reading materials given. References were also made to specific themes such as autumn and the neighborhood. Many stated they enjoyed working in groups a lot. The cultural follow-up activities were also liked. They all felt that it was a lot of work and a few found the textbook boring.

In summary, the systematic teaching strategy responded positively on most of the items in the questionnaire. They found the materials most interesting, they felt they had enough chances to participate in all the activities and enough chances were given to work in small groups and play a lot of interesting games in class as compared to the other groups. The systematic teaching strategy group disagreed on coming late to class and was significantly different from other two groups. Overall, the systematic strategy expressed they felt they had learned a lot in the current year.

Although no significant differences were found among the groups on the other items, a high percentage of the entire sample indicated they hated homework, and that the instructor gave them enough time to practice speaking Italian in class.

Attitude towards the teachers. The students were asked to respond to the Arlin-Hill Attitude Questionnaire on attitudes toward their current teacher. Composite scores by each subject were used to compare the groups. The results showed a more positive attitude towards the teachers of the systematic strategy. This is possibly due to the way the learners view the teachers through the teaching strategies and materials, rather than teaching performance. (See Appendix O).

Attitudes Expressed by the Teachers

Teacher attitude inventory. This instrument intended to identify those teachers who were disposed to a more pupil-centered, flexible teaching style as opposed to the teacher-centered teaching style. Overall, all the teachers indicated a positive attitude towards the idea of pupil-centered instruction. Interviews with the teachers supported the willingness to be flexible and trend towards changing their roles. (See Appendix P).

Evaluative questionnaire on instructional guide. This questionnaire was intended for a summative evaluation of the instructional guide followed by those teachers in the systematic strategy. Overall the objectives, the instructional strategy content and materials were rated positively. No major difficulty was found and the systematic strategy has helped the teaching and the learning (see Appendix Q).

CHAPTER V

Discussion

It was hypothesized that a systematic approach to instruction would be more effective at increasing performance than alternative strategies. Based on the analysis of results, those students who conscripted with the systematic teaching strategy performed significantly better than those in the objective-based program and the conventional traditional program. The results thus supported the hypothesis. More specifically, the systematic teaching strategy group performed consistently better than both groups in comprehension, grammar, spelling and composition. The objective-based group did not perform significantly different from the traditional group for comprehension, grammar, and composition, however performed significantly lower in the spelling test. The superior performance of the systematic group was as expected. Furthermore, the objective-based group performed no different than the traditional group. Regarding school ability, the above average learner scored significantly better than the average and below average group in all the measures except for comprehension and spelling. However, the average group did not do significantly better than the below average group. As for the motivational variable, the medium level group scored significantly better than all three levels, but on the spelling test measure only. No interactions were observed among the variables.

Differences Among the Instructional StrategiesSystematic Strategy

This empirical research has attempted to suggest that alternative modes of instruction will affect learning in various ways. The systematic strategy has in fact increased learning as was expected regardless of the type of learner or learning which was to occur. The systematic

approach was concerned with providing the learner the best structure and sequence possible to maximize learning because it was based on improving interaction between the learner and the instructional system, i.e., teachers and materials. Therefore, it appears that the systematic approach can be an effective vehicle towards increasing participation through the use of relevant and well-sequenced activities. Relevancy and sequencing are not the only factors that affect the learners' participation. An attempt to provide a variety of instructional materials is essential, and must be considered in satisfying the various differences and needs that exist among the learners. The systematic strategy succeeded in avoiding the relentless use of memorization and simple mechanical drills of verbs and grammar as opposed to the other two groups. The students from the other two groups made special references to hating writing and memorizing verbs in the attitude questionnaires.

The systematic teaching strategy group performed consistently better than both groups in the grammar and composition tests. It was noted that communicative competence could be assessed through written work (Brodkey & Young, 1980, 1981). Therefore, the instructional strategy was successful in accomplishing the objective of communicative competence, thus better suited to satisfy the needs of the learner. Central to several of the current theories viewing the language learner as an active contributor to the learning process is the need to relate to the language. As a result, effective language learning is seen as starting with the practical, that of highest expectancy and value to the learner, and that which the learner can experience (Keller, 1979). According to the communicative approach, which emphasizes language notions and functions, the emphasis is on 'authentic' materials and items which are relevant in the students' lives. In order for the students to communicate, the

learner must be able to focus on the various grammatical structures which might possibly be used in the given situation. If the learner is not aware of the communicational function or the appropriate structure, the teacher's role is to aid and assist the learner with that particular communication act. The communicative approach is flexible enough to allow the teacher to integrate and explain grammatical rules or morphological rules of the language according to the needs of the learner and involve the student in problem-solving activities that required them to identify or sort out the language principles. As a result, grammar was learnt in the attempt to communicate messages in a given situation or circumstance (Hymes, 1970).

It would appear that the systematic strategy integrated this flexible approach more effectively than either the objective-based or traditional approaches. This result was particularly encouraging for two reasons. First, although all three approaches ostensibly used the same form of communicative strategy, the systematic strategy required the most extensive redesign, or deviation from a teacher's standard practice. This strategy proved most effective in spite of its "untried" nature. The change, or so-called Hawthorne effect may have, in fact, influenced the obtained differences. But the dynamic revision-oriented character of the systematic approach suggests that this desirable "confounding effect" could likely be perpetuated. The built-in flexibility prevents the instructor from establishing a routine which inevitably leads to boredom. Second, the systematic approach is often accused of being inflexible in practice (Briggs, 1977). If that were the case in this study, the design methodology would have conflicted with the learning technique, resulting in an ineffective system. On the contrary,

the two approaches appeared to have co-operated fully, producing superior achievement scores. Remarks from the teachers who used the systematic approach fully supported this view.

Furthermore, great satisfaction on the part of the teachers resulted in that they were able to guide the students through the activities without frustration. It was also recognized that the activities and content of the lesson were directly related to the objectives stated. Objectives do provide a means for assessing instruction because they provide focus for instruction. A good lesson can be measured through the actual performance of the students. This performance can be evaluated with the intended objectives by the instructors. However, according to the teachers, if the students did not succeed with a particular objective, it was felt that something was wrong with the lessons (as opposed to the usual assumption that the learner is at fault). Those lessons which were not successful were identified and attributed to level of language difficulty for the learners of that age group. The activities were otherwise indicated to be very much related and very well sequenced. However, the teachers did note that the difficulty of those lessons did not stop the students from attempting to understand and work out the problems, because the topics were interesting. This implies that a successful lesson requires a well balanced instructional strategy but always in reflection to the learner's needs. Moreover, although the objectives and the sequence of content and activities are in accordance, the materials selected must remain relatively easy, but complex enough to maintain curiosity and interest of the learners. Feedback and objectives to the instructor are essential components of the instructional strategy because they help to evaluate the chosen lesson strategy and

the learner, simultaneously. Although it was not the goal of this theses to increase the effectiveness of the lessons through formative evaluation, the ongoing process was clearly useful, and more formal evaluation procedures are highly recommended.

Objective-Based and Traditional Group

It is assumed that if a teacher is given precise objectives, their efforts should supposedly, lead to a successfully planned lesson strategy. Surprisingly, the results indicate the contrary. The objective-based group scored significantly lower than the systematic group in all four measures. When questioning the teachers in the objective-based grouping about the objectives and how they were useful for lesson planning, the responses were those of frustration and confusion. Such responses were not directed to the clarity and relevance of the objectives, but to the task of applying their personal lesson plans to them. They felt that time was a major drawback to put together a sequenced plan and potential instructional materials. Consensus was granted as far as the themes and the objectives given. Unfortunately, they were only used as a reference point but not to develop a systematic teaching lesson plan. However, they noted that their lessons were based on conversations, reading and a review of grammar and syntax and they managed to integrate simple games in every lesson. It is known that traditionally much time is spent on giving out dictations to improve spelling, pronunciation and comprehension. Therefore, it was not expected that any differences would be observed for comprehension and possibly spelling between the systematic and objective-based groups. It is possible that a negative reaction towards the imposition of instructional objectives occurred. These results also imply that the presence of objectives does not

necessarily guarantee an effective teaching/learning processes (Gerlach et al, 1978; Kibler & Basset, 1977) and that because there is lack of systematic procedures and techniques to follow, there is a tendency to diverge from the original intent (Roberts, 1982).

The results of the objective-based group and the traditional group help reaffirm the adequacy of the instructional strategy as a whole. The systems approach maintains that due to the interrelation of all parts of the learning process, deviation or removal of some aspects will effect the others. In this case, the effect was detrimental.

Cognitive and Affective Differences

Different levels of school ability and motivational differences do exist. Over the years, educators have found a direct relationship between intelligence and learning and motivation and learning. Traditionally, if learning did not occur, either of the two characteristics were labelled as the cause. However, with time it was found that other factors could improve on these differences, such as instructional strategies. A second intent of the study was to have decreased the achievement differences between the levels of school ability and motivational level. The fact that there was no interaction between the variables suggests that the instructional strategies catered equally well to all three levels of school ability and motivational leveled students. As was expected, the above average students did significantly better than the average and the below average group, as did the latter groups, respectively, in two of the subtests: grammar and composition, supporting previous research done on aptitude (Carroll & Sapon, 1959; Gardner & Lambert, 1964; Pimsleur, 1980). In that no differential learning strategy was implemented beyond the broad heading of the communicative approach, its lack of

interaction was not unexpected. As for the differences noted between the motivational level groups, where the spelling test was the only dependent measure to produce results, the only explanation offered is the way the test was presented. Because it was a pictorial spelling text, it was possible that the task reflected the students' interest. The learner was possibly curious and was able to manipulate what was most relevant to him or her. The fact that the learner was able to manipulate the pictures cognitively, in whatever language he/she knew best, possibly motivated the response. Therefore, it would be safe to assume that the effort was increased (Dodge, 1978; Kopp, 1982). If this is so, it re-emphasizes that gaining attention of the learner is a crucial first step at all levels of instruction (Gagné, 1977). It also means that gaining attention requires the ability of the learner to recognize and relate to the experience (Winn, 1982). Having gained attention actually means having given the learner the chance to react and actually give him/herself the chance to choose to participate or not.

The fact that the systematic approach was not able to decrease the differences among the levels of school ability was also possibly due to time constraints. Insufficient time or opportunity for the instructor to work individually with students on an activity may have been a major factor in this respect. However, this does indicate that further study and improvement is needed to alleviate this problem. Although, the students of the systematic strategy enjoyed the classes, they still did not want to be there. However, the systematic strategy has managed to slightly change their attitudes. This implies that the need to integrate a systematic teaching strategy at a very early age or in the first level of instruction would help to reduce any negative attitude towards school to a minimum.

Educational Implications

It has been argued over the years whether instructional strategy makes any difference in determining the acquisition of learning. Learning involves insight and means understanding of logical relationships or perceptions of the connections between means and ends. Objectives are the preset goals which aid in determining the content, and if made known to the learner, the learner would understand better what is expected of him. However, the objectives cannot function alone unless the person manipulating the objectives is capable of integrating them in the given instructional system with all of its respective components.

According to Lavi (1983, 1984), educational technologists and instructional technologists' efforts and orientation are directed towards the learner, and he therefore calls this technology 'Learning Technology' -

...a dynamic framework based on methodological skills that integrate Learning Strategies with Tactics, Methods, and Media, in order to facilitate efficient and effective two-way communication in the learning environment. (p. 75)

Therefore, given the goals and the needs of the learner, the instructional strategy with all of the above components are crucial to enhance any further interaction between the learner and his environment. Thus, the instructional strategy with its respective components are the input to the learners' system. This input must interact and interrelate with the learner system (Banathy, 1977) which is a complex system in itself (Simon, 1978). An instructional strategy which looks for ways to maximize

this interaction must incorporate variety and feedback. Variety can be integrated via the method and the media. Thus the major concern of instructional design is the mode of the message and the physical learning aids integrated into the program. Feedback can only occur if evaluation is available. Therefore evaluation is a necessary component in instruction to provide improvement and satisfaction of the learner's cognitive and motivational needs.

Despite the learner's personality and level of motivation, it seems that imposing well structured and sequenced instruction which reflects the students' capabilities and interests can affect learning. These results impose upon the teacher, as an educator, the responsibility to take the time to diagnose the problems and needs of the learners. In respect to these problems and needs, the teacher must prescribe, select, sequence, structure and guide learners, be it in conversations or discussions, in individualized or group activities. Finally, most important is the feedback to the learners to reassure them of their progress. Even though the task of lesson planning is long and tedious, those teachers using the systematic teaching strategy have asked the investigator that such a guide and materials be provided to the teachers. In fact, it had never occurred to them that a well thought-out and written lesson plan could actually benefit not only the learner but also the teachers, themselves. A systematic approach to teaching puts the teacher in control of the class, in spite of the fact that class is student-centered. Therefore, a systematic approach to instruction aids in changing the role of the teacher, not towards an authoritarian figure but as the actual guide of the class, being aware of every learner's move, even when students are working in groups. Furthermore, the teacher

acts as the coach providing more space for the learner to become an active participant, thus leading to improved learnings. If the learner is fully involved in classroom activities, he/she does not have time to cause any disciplinary problems. Idle chatter within the classroom becomes organized, providing a two-way communication among learners and the instructor.

Recommendations and Conclusions

On the basis of these results, therefore, it is reasonable to imply that the systematic approach as applied to course development can positively affect learning. Specific recommendations can be made for teachers teaching the 'heritage language' to Italian children who attend courses on Saturdays in Montreal.

It was assumed that the problems that currently exist in the traditional classroom are not those of discipline and lack of motivation. These problems were possibly the result of lack of systematic planning of instruction therefore resulted in disaccordment between the instructional system and the learner system. That is, the current traditional instructional strategy possibly does not cater to the interest of the learners. The teachers of the systematic teaching strategy all felt that the structured and sequenced lesson plans helped them to teach in a more relaxed environment because they felt they had more control of the direction of the instruction and of the learner, and definitely felt that an instructional guide be prepared at all levels of instruction. The systematic approach to instructional design not only affects learning for the learner but may increase teachers' awareness, creativity and most of all renew enthusiasm in teaching, as indicated by those who participated in the systematic teaching-strategy grouping. While it is

clear that the present study applied only general control over the teaching variable, the prescriptions, flexible as they were, appeared to have worked. Research continues to probe the specifics of the learner and his/her environment, and is necessary. However, practitioners need evidence that instructional design actually works. This, and hopefully other studies, will offer them encouraging evidence.

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APPENDIX A

INTRODUZIONELO SCOPO

1. Migliorare e sostenere la motivazione degli studenti interessati a imparare l'italiano.
2. Rendere efficace l'acquisizione d'un contenuto linguistico mediante un programma, obbiettivo sistematicamente e in relazione a situazioni di vita quotidiana.

OBBIETTIVO GLOBALE

Mediante le sceneggiature della vita quotidiana sviluppare negli alunni di quarta le abilità necessarie a comunicare oralmente e per iscritto in italiano.

OBBIETTIVI SPECIFICI

Per meglio sostenere la motivazione degli alunni, il contenuto didattico è basato su un approccio sistematico delle attività.

Questo terrà conto:

- di migliorare e sostenere la motivazione degli allievi interessati a imparare l'italiano.
- di rispondere alle preoccupazioni tipiche ad ogni allievo, colte nel contesto dei valori socio - culturali e linguistici.
- di mettere in situazione di riuscita l'alunno.
- di implicare ognuno nelle attività proposte.
- di rendergli meglio accessibili le acquisizioni.
- di favorire una evoluzione più normativa delle attitudini, delle conoscenze, e delle abilità di comunicazione.

Il programma deve:

- influenzare la pratica pedagogica dell'insegnante
- motivare l'insegnante a obbiettivare ogni attività proposta agli allievi o dagli allievi.

Tutto questo per fare concretizzare con successo le acquisizioni previste, sviluppare le strategie o situazioni significative all'alunno in rapporto alla sua vita quotidiana e dei valori del suo ambiente sociale, culturale e linguistico e avere una percezione positiva delle capacità positive degli alunni favorendo un rapporto (aperto), di fiducia, privo quindi, di frustrazioni.

1. Il ruolo dell'insegnante si ridurrà a quello di guida e di animatore, mentre quello del ragazzo sarà di attore. Il ragazzo col suo ambiente e i suoi interessi sarà il perno delle varie attività.
2. Ogni lezione comincerà con un attività autentica. Questa attività può essere lettura, scrittura, conversazione, discussione, quiz, esposizione e sempre metterà gli alunni in situazione di partecipazione diretta.
3. I compiti per casa saranno un insieme di controllo sulla lezione svolta e un accenno preparatorio sulla lezione seguente.
4. Le attività e i materiali scelti: lettura, disegni, giochi, cassette, simulazioni, esercizi, schede linguistiche e didattiche, dialoghi ecc... rispecchieranno un ordine didattico prestabilito. Avranno lo scopo di tener costantemente il ragazzo occupato, a rielaborare le strutture linguistiche in una maniera scorrevole e piacevole. Si deve dare una giusta importanza al gioco. Il gioco deve rispecchiare, in qualche modo gli obbiettivi e le

strutture linguistiche trattate oltre che divertire e rilassare il bambino.

5. In quasi ogni lezione sono state inserite delle schede culturali, il cui scopo è una presa di conoscenza del parallelo fra cultura Italiana e locale, nei loro aspetti folcloristici, regionali, stagionali, ecc... Per compilare queste schede il bambino ha bisogno della collaborazione dei genitori. Questa collaborazione sviluppa il dialogo e l'interesse sia dei genitori che dell'alunno per la cultura e la lingua.
6. La valutazione è la misura del progresso dell'alunno e, nello stesso tempo, della validità del lavoro dell'insegnante. Va fatta in modo costante e continuo per poter localizzare i punti deboli dovuti alla difficoltà del soggetto, dei materiali usati o dell'inadeguato svolgimento delle varie attività. Di tanto in tanto, sarà apprezzabile anche una valutazione da parte degli alunni su certe lezioni, fornendo motivi e spiegazioni. Ogni correzione sarà fatta in modo positivo: gli errori non saranno individualizzati, gli errori più ricorrenti saranno ripresi durante le varie attività si terrà conto del valore significativo e, tutto al più, delle nozioni linguistiche della lezione in corso.
7. Bisogna ricordare che lo scopo di questi corsi è, prima di tutto saper comunicare. In tutte le attività, dunque, si darà importanza alla comprensione - esposizione che alla grammatica e alla forma.

TEMI SCELTI

Tutti i temi scelti riflettono e partono dall'ambiente immediata del bambino. I soggetti trattati sono di sua conoscenza e interessanti per lui: ciò facilita la trasposizione di vocaboli e forme in una lingua quasi nuova com'è l'italiano per lui. Gli obbiettivi contemplati tenderanno a polarizzare le esperienze degli alunni:

- a) - sulle loro difficoltà nel non sapersi esprimere uniformemente in lingua italiana;
- b) sulla consapevolezza dell'importanza dei corsi d'italiano come luogo di apprendimento e approfondimento delle forme di comunicazione in lingua materna, cioè lingua di famiglia;
- c) sulla maniera in cui saranno articolate le lezioni per meglio scoprire e assimilare il contenuto linguistico e culturale del programma dell'anno.

1. Io e Te

Questa prima lezione aiuterà l'allievo a presentarsi e a parlare di se stesso, a scambiare informazioni con il suo interlocutore, per agevolare la conoscenza e meglio inserirsi nel gruppo.

2. Lui e Loro

Le attività scelte nella seconda lezione incoraggiano gli studenti a entrare in relazione gli uni con gli altri, salutando e intervistando per fare nuove conoscenze e per essere in grado, più tardi di poter, senza difficoltà, descrivere e parlare di qualcuno.

3. Come siamo?

Le attività della terza lezione aiuteranno l'allievo a osservare

e descrivere se stesso e gli altri, usando gli aggettivi appropriatamente. Imparerà a giudicare le varie espressioni che denotano sentimenti, a parlarne e a farne paragoni.

4. La Famiglia

La quarta lezione metterà l'allievo in condizione di essere più informato sul lessico riguardante i membri della sua parentela e più cosciente della sua discendenza e origine. Le attività scelte coinvolgono lo studente a partecipare al dialogo di classe e a cogliere delle informazioni presso i propri genitori.

5. L'Origine

La lezione quinta abiliterà l'allievo a conoscere ed impiegare termini geografici, di clima, di cultura e di costume. Tramite le attività, sarà in grado di riconoscere, e descrivere caratteristiche proprie di alcuni luoghi e paragonarle con quelle di altri luoghi.

6. La Festa di 'Halloween'

Da un anno all'altro i ragazzi alimentano il ricordo di una serata in maschera e di una buona raccolta di leccornie.

Discutere assieme e lavorare su tale argomento in una lezione d'italiano e rispondere con entusiasmo a uno dei loro maggiori interessi. Attraverso le varie attività, il discorso sul travestimento si allargherà fino a parlare di origini, di motivi e di luoghi.

7. L'Autunno

I fenomeni stagionali del tempo meteorologico...(fa bello, piove, nevicata, tira vento, c'è il sole...) condizionano gli uomini e le cose a nuovi adattamenti climatici e ad attività differenti.

8. Il Mio Quartiere

Per gli studenti di quarta, il quartiere costituisce un ambiente di risorse e d'esperienza nella vita quotidiana. Considerando le loro difficoltà linguistiche a trasporre in italiano le espressioni proprie alla lingua inglese o francese le attività prescelte l'aiuteranno a poter intuire, associare e usare il lessico italiano d'uso corrente per esprimere correttamente gli stessi concetti.

9. L'Esterno della Casa

Parlando del quartiere e del suo vicinato, il bambino si troverà a parlare di uno dei suoi maggiori centri d'interesse: la sua casa. Anche qui egli sarà capace di paragonare, di localizzare, di saper dare direzioni e, naturalmente di saper descrivere.

10. L'Interno della Casa

Entrando e parlando dell'interno della sua casa l'alunno parla di qualcosa a lui caro. Sono i luoghi dove vive con la sua famiglia e ogni oggetto ha una storia e un valore. Forse è una delle lezioni in cui l'alunno si esprime con più spontaneità e scorrevolezza: ne approfittiamo per sottolineare sentimenti, preferenze, e abitudini.



OBBIETTIVO GENERALE:

Fare accertare agli alunni l'origine dell'Halloween, con lo scopo di paragonare tale manifestazione con alcune feste (come quella dei Morti e dei Santi), celebrate in Italia.

OBBIETTIVI SPECIFICI:

- 1) Permettere allo studente di complementare le sue espressioni con un vocabolario preciso.
- 2) Permettere allo studente di poter descrivere il proprio costume di travestimento in occasione dell'Halloween, o quello dei compagni che l'ha impressionato di più, e di saper parlare, in generale, di costumi e travestimenti.

PRESENTAZIONE	OBBIETTIVITÀ	STRATEGIA
I. <u>CONTENUTO</u> <u>DIDATTICO.</u>	IMPOSTAZIONE DELL'ATTIVITÀ. (basata sulla conversazione)	Svolgimento dell'attività verbale e scritto. (discutere, classificare, paragonare)
II. <u>RICHIAMI</u> <u>DEL</u> <u>CONTENUTO</u> <u>LINGUISTICO</u>	NOZIONE SPECIFICHE DI FONETICA, DI MORFOLOGIA, DI NOMENCLATURA, E DI FRASEOLOGIA.	Attività Orale e attività scritto sull contenuto linguistico della lezione: Scheda Linguistiche
III. <u>ATTIVITÀ</u> <u>DIDATTICA</u> <u>E CULTURALE</u>	RIFERIMENTI AI SUSSIDI DIDATTICI.	- Lettura - Esercizii - Sceneggiature Illustrate - Giochi, ecc...
IV. <u>CONTROLLO</u> (feedback)	VERIFICA DELL'ABI- LITÀ A SAPER METTERE IN PRATICA, ORALMEN- TE E PER ISCRITTO.	Esamino obbiettivato sul vocabolario, fraseologia, ed espressioni tramite, schede, giochi, e esercizi.
V. <u>CONCLUSIONE</u>	VALUTAZIONE DEL CONTENUTO DIDATTICO E LINGUISTICO E CULTURALE DELLA GIORNATA.	Orientamento alla lezione successiva... mediante lettura esercizi e scheda culturale.

Richiami Linguistici e Lessicali

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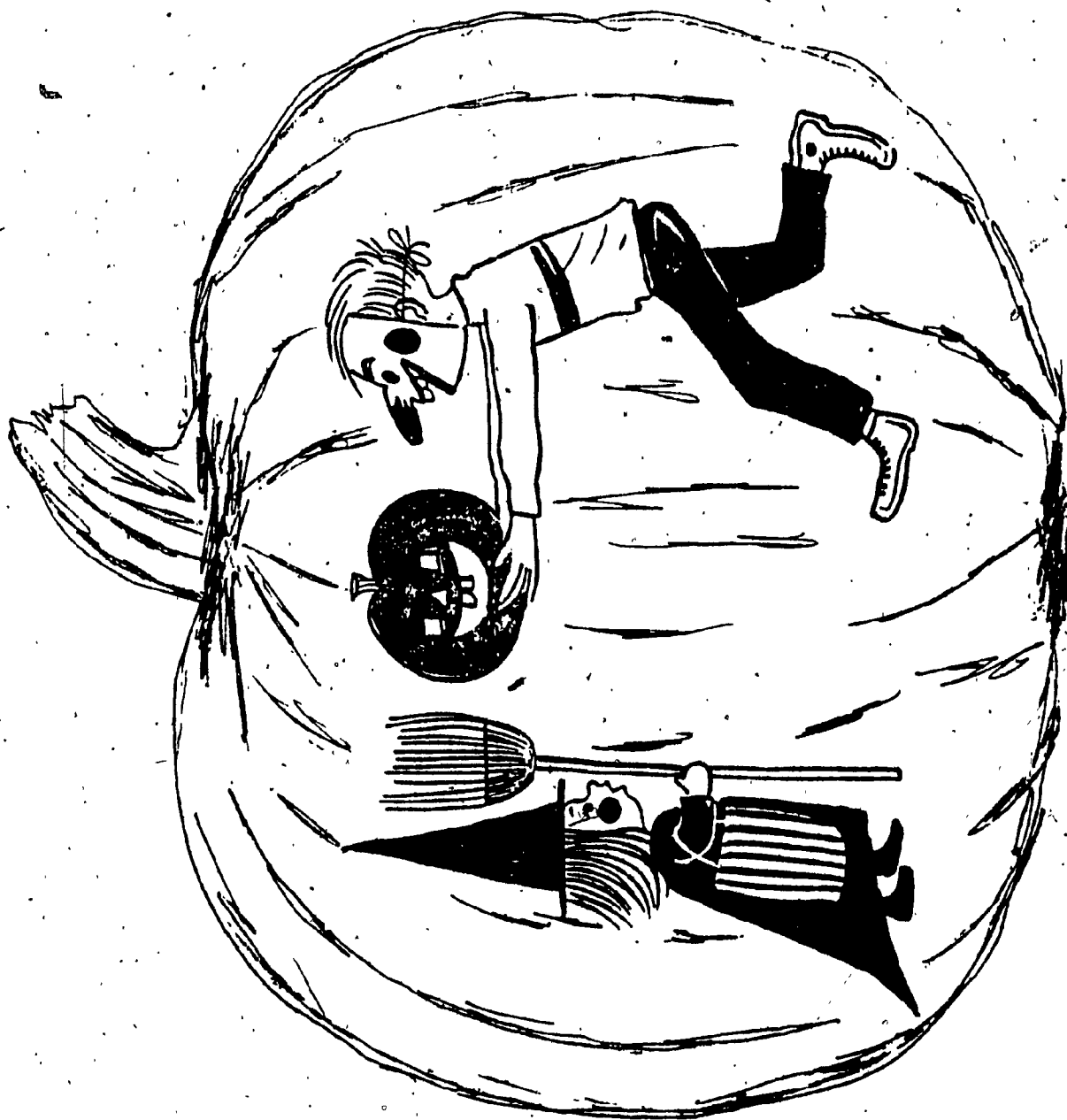
NOMENCLATURA	PAROLA D'AZIONE	GRAMMATICA
"Halloween"	divertire	1. Capire l'uso dell'acca (H)
fantasma	aver paura	nella lingua italiana.
spirito maligno	travestire	- verbo avere
strega	c'era/c'erano	- il suono gutturale
maschere		2. Il nome singolare e plurale
costumi	PAROLE DI QUALITÀ	3. Il verbo all'imperfetto
scopa	arancio	- essere
gatto	nero	4. L'articolo lo - gli
la zucca		davanti a S impura
il ragno	ESPRESSIONI	scheletro
ragnatela	C'era una volta	scherzo
la luna		spirito
il gufo		

STRATEGIA DIDATTICA	SVOLGIMENTO DELLE ATTIVITÀ DIDATTICHE E SUGGERIMENTI	FRASEOLOGIA (FORME DI CONVERSAZIONE)	RICCHIAMI LINGUISTICI E LESSICALI	RISORSE E AUSILI DIDATTICI
<p>1. <u>Attività Autentica</u></p> <p><u>Discussione</u></p> <p>sull'origine dell'Halloween</p> <p>a) Cenni storici e leggendari</p>	<p>L'insegnante aiuta e guida la discussione, facendo parlare i ragazzi delle loro conoscenze.</p> <p>L'insegnante rileva alla lavagna parole e espressioni suscettibili di essere corrette o di essere utilizzate nella conversazione.</p>	<p><u>Insegnante</u></p> <p>Come ti vesti per l'Halloween</p> <p>1. Che cos'è l'Halloween?</p> <p>2. Perché celebriamo questa festa?</p> <p>3. In quale paese è cominciata questa festa tradizionale?</p> <p>4. Quali colori sono predominanti la sera dell'Halloween (l'arancio, e il nero).</p>	<p>L'uso dell'acca. (il verbo avere)</p> <p>LAVAGNA</p> <p>Frase Interrogativa</p> <p>Perché?</p> <p>Quale?</p> <p>Quali?</p> <p>Come?</p> <p>Cosa?</p> <p><u>Colori</u></p> <p>- arancio</p> <p>- blu (azzurro)</p> <p>- verde, ecc...</p>	<p>LAVAGNA</p>

STRATEGIA DIDATTICA	SVOLGIMENTO DELLE ATTIVITÀ DIDATTICHE E SUGGERIMENTI	FRASEOLOGIA (FORME DI CONVERSAZIONE)	RICHIAMI LINGUISTICI E LESSICALI	RISORSE E AUSILI DIDATTICI
		<p>5. Cosa rappresentano le maschere, i travestimenti, la zucca, le candele, la strega, il gatto nero, la ragnatela, ecc...</p> <p>6. Quale festa in Italia coincide con l'Halloween, viene nello stesso tempo che l'Halloween.</p> <p>- Si dice che ... o.</p> <p>- Si racconta che ...</p> <p>- Dicono</p> <p>- C'era una volta ...</p>	<p><u>Verbi</u></p> <p>Dire</p> <p>Raccontare</p> <p>Cpincideré</p> <p>Succedere</p> <p>Avvenire</p>	

STRATEGIA DIDATTICA	SVOLGIMENTO DELLE ATTIVITÀ DIDATTICHE E SUGGERIMENTI	FRASEOLOGIA (FORME DI CONVERSAZIONE)	RICHIAMO LINGUISTICI E LESSICALI	RISORSE L AUSILI DIDATTICI
<p>2. <u>Letture e Scrittura</u></p> <p>a) Lettura silenziosa individuale</p> <p>b) 'Questionario'</p>	<p>Distribuire il testo della storia dell'Halloween.</p> <p>Fare scoprire l'origine con l'aiuto del testo.</p> <p>- Abilitare l'alunno a rispondere con l'aiuto del testo alle domande del questionario</p> <p>- Raccogliere il questionario, correggerlo e rimetterlo con apprezzamento. (Bravo, ecc)</p>			<p><u>Ausili Didattici</u></p> <p><u>"HALLOWEEN"</u></p>

HALLOWEEN



HALLOWEEN

Nel lontano passato l'halloween era chiamato "All-Hallow" o "Hulowmass". I Cristiani e i pagani l'adottarono come la festa dei morti e di tutti i santi.

In diversi paesi europei la celebrazione dell'Halloween o Samhain (per gli Anglo-Sassoni), marcava la fine dell'estate e per molti, l'inizio dell'anno nuovo. Mediante l'effetto magico del fuoco, le predizioni e i travestimenti, si ringraziava il "Genio delle raccolte," implorando la sua protezione anche sugli armenti, indispensabili alla sopravvivenza dei terrestri. Le sciagure naturali, con le perdite di vite umane e degli animali, erano attribuite a forze soprannaturali, alle streghe, alle fate, ai fantasmi e ai demoni. A novembre, periodo più ingrato dell'anno, le cerimonie dell'Halloween si celebrano fastosamente e religiosamente per neutralizzare ogni superstizione. Col passar del tempo queste feste diventarono delle vere e propria manifestazione folcloriche.

Nacque così l'Halloween, la festa in cui, secondo le credenze popolari, l'anima dei morti ritornava là dove questi avevano vissuto, incontrandosi e azzuffandosi con le streghe, con i fantasmi, con le fate, con i diavoli, gli scheletri ed altri personaggi orrendi.

Diversi paesi nel mondo hanno continuato questa tradizione di celebrazioni e di costumi. In Canada e particolarmente negli Stati Uniti si intagliano le zucche come lanterne per farle vegliare tutta la notte. I bambini d'ogni età si travestono imitando mille personaggi di tutte le epoche.

Se la sera dell'Halloween, Hulk o Super-Man bussano alla vostra porta, non vi impaurite...anche loro vi diranno grazie per qualche caramella.

NOME: _____

DATA: _____

QUESTIONARIO"HALLOWEEN"

1. Anche nel passato alcuni popoli europei celebravano l'Halloween in autunno. Qual era il motivo?

2. In quale maniera la gente partecipava alla cerimonie?

3. A chi erano attribuite le sciagure naturali?

4. Quando le anime dei morti si incontravano con le streghe, con i fantasmi ed altri personaggi...cosa succedeva?

5. Perché negli Stati Uniti e in Canada si intagliano le zucche in occasione dell'Halloween?

STRATEGIA DIDATTICA	SVOLGIMENTO DELLE ATTIVITÀ DIDATTICHE E SUGGERIMENTI	FRASEOLOGIA (FORME DI CONVERSAZIONE)	RICHIAMI LINGUISTICI E LESSICALI	RISORSE E AUSILI DIDATTICI
3. <u>Esposizione</u> <u>Orale</u> (Controllo)	L'insegnante motiverà gli alunni a raccontare storie riguardanti l'Halloween.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conoscete qualche storia sull'Halloween? Perché si parla spesso della strega, della zucca, del ragno, del gatto nero, dello scheletro, dei fantasmi, del gufo, dei morti? 	<p>L'uso dell'articolo 'lo', 'gli'</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - scheletro - spirito - scherzo - sciagura <p><u>Preposizioni</u> di, a, da, in, con, su, per, tra, fra</p>	

STRATEGIA DIDATTICA	SVOLGIMENTO DELLE ATTIVITÀ DIDATTICHE E SUGGERIMENTI	FRASEOLOGIA (FORME DI CONVERSAZIONE)	RICCHIAMI LINGUISTICI E LESSICALI	RISORSE L AUSILI DIDATTICI
<p>4. <u>Attività Scritta e 'Collettive'</u></p> <p>a) Inventiamo una storia</p>	<p>L'insegnante farà raggruppare gli alunni per tre. Chiederà ai ragazzi di consultarsi per descrivere un racconto che conoscono sull'Halloween, o per comporre una storia di loro invenzione.</p> <p>Distribuirà la Scheda Didattica No. 6. Gli alunni sono liberi di scegliere i vocaboli appropriati che vi sono elencati.</p>		<p>l'Halloween</p> <p>il fantasma</p> <p>lo spirito maligno (folletto)</p> <p>la strega</p> <p>le maschere</p> <p>i costumi</p> <p>la scopa</p> <p>il gatto nero</p> <p>la zucca</p> <p>il ragno</p> <p>la ragnatela</p> <p>la luna</p> <p>il gufo</p>	<p><u>Scheda Didattica NO. 6</u></p> <p>"C'era una volta..."</p>

STRATEGIA DIDATTICA	SVOLGIMENTO DELLE ATTIVITÀ DIDATTICHE E SUGGERIMENTI	FRASEOLOGIA (FORME DI CONVERSAZIONE)	RICHIAMI LINGUISTICI E LESSICALI	RISORSE E AUSILI DIDATTICI
	Avvertire i ragazzi che le composizioni verranno valutate per la loro esattezza sull'orto- grafia, gli articoli usati e la loro concordanza con i nomi e gli aggettivi.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •arancio •nero •macabro •orrore •scherzo o trattare (trick or treat) •brivido <u>Verbi</u> •fabbricare •avvertire •aver paura •strisciare •travestire •tremare 	

STRATEGIA DIDATTICA	SVOLGIMENTO DELLE ATTIVITÀ DIDATTICHE E SUGGERIMENTI	FRASEOLOGIA (FORME DI CONVERSAZIONE)	RICHIAMI LINGUISTICI E LESSICALI	RISORSE E AUSILI DIDATTICI
b) Lettura della composizione	Ogni partecipante leggerà una parte della composizione scritta in gruppo.	<p>Quale dei racconti avete trovato più interessante?</p> <p>Perché vi è piaciuto?</p> <p>Perché vi fa ridere...?</p> <p>Perché vi fa paura...?</p> <p>Perché è strano...?</p> <p>Perché è assurdo...?</p> <p>Perché è ridicolo?</p> <p>Perché è divertente?</p> <p>Perché è fantastico?</p>	<p>ti</p> <p>vi</p> <p>mi</p> <p>ci</p>	Le Composizioni degli alunni

PARTECIPANTI:

SCHEDA DIDATTICA

NO. 6B

C'era una volta

Halloween

fantasma

spirito maligno

strega

maschere

costumi

scopa*

gatto nero

la zucca

il ragno

la ragnatela

la luna

il gufo

arancio

nero

macabro

errore

fabbricare

(scherzo o trattare)

divertire

aver paura

strisciare

strillare

tremare

· brivido

travestire

STRATEGIA DIDATTICA	SVOLGIMENTO DELLE ATTIVITÀ DIDATTICHE E SUGGERIMENTI	FRASEOLOGIA (FORME DI CONVERSAZIONE)	RICHAMI LINGUISTICI E LESSICALI	RISORSE L AUSILI DIDATTICI
<u>5. Conclusioni</u> <u>Valutazione</u>	<p>L'insegnante porrà alcune domande relative all'apprezzamento della lezione nelle sue parti.</p> <p>La classe risponderà per SÌ, NO, o NON SO.</p> <p>I risultati dell'indagine saranno annotati alla lavagna.</p>	<p>1. Trovate che parlare dell'Halloween sia importante?</p> <p>2. Sapevate tutto quello che abbiamo imparato oggi?</p> <p>3. La lettura è stata difficile?</p> <p>4. La composizione in gruppi vi è piaciuta?</p> <p>5. Cosa vi sarebbe piaciuto fare oltre a tutto questo o a ciò che è stato fatto oggi?</p>		

STRATEGIA DIDATTICA	SVOLGIMENTO DELLE ATTIVITA DIDATTICHE E SUGGERIMENTI	FRASEOLOGIA (FORNE DI CONVERSAZIONE)	RICHAMI LINGUISTICI E LESSICALI	RISORSE E AUSILI DIDATTICI
b) <u>Compiti</u> 1) L'Autunno		Completate la scheda sull'autunno con l'aiuto dei vostri genitori o nonni.		Scheda Culturale No. 5
2) Lettura e Esercizio		Osserva e Leggi <u>Il Parco</u> in Autunno p. 34, 35. Completate p. 36 e 37.		Parliamo l'Italiano pp. 34, 35, 36, 37
3) Ricerca e Raccolta		Raccogliete e portate degli esempi di varie foglie (a terra)		L'ambiente esterno

NOME DELL'INSEGNANTE: _____

DATE: _____

LEZIONE: _____

COMMENTI POSITIVI:

a) sulle attività svolte

b) sulla partecipazione
degli alunni

COMMENTI NEGATIVI:

a) sulle attività svolte

b) sulla partecipazione
degli alunni

ARGOMENTO: IO E GLI ALTRI ... * IO E TE *

LEZIONE: PRIMA

OBIETTIVO GENERALE:

Lo studente dovrà essere in grado di presentarsi, in un linguaggio conforme alle norme linguistiche dell'italiano, per meglio facilitare le conoscenze dell'insegnante e dei suoi compagni.

OBIETTIVO SPECIFICO:

Lo studente dovrà essere in grado di formulare chiaramente il proprio nome, cognome e indirizzo, tracciando sommariamente, con frasi semplici, le sue occupazioni e i propri interessi.

APPENDIX B

ARGOMENTO: IO E GLI ALTRI ... * LUI E LORO *

LEZIONE: SECONDA

OBBIETTIVO GENERALE:

Lo studente dovrà saper presentare gli altri in un linguaggio conforme alle norme linguistiche dell'italiano.

OBBIETTIVO SPECIFICO:

L'alunno dovrà essere capace di:

1. presentare terze persone nominandole con chiarezza;
2. sapere chiedere 'che gli siano presentati terze persone'
3. saper impiegare le varie forme di saluto nel modo e tempo appropriati.

ARGOMENTO: IO E GLI ALTRI ... * COME SIAMO *

LEZIONE: TERZA

OBBIETTIVO GENERALE:

Lo studente deve essere in grado di descrivere se stesso e gli altri.

OBBIETTIVO SPECIFICO:

Lo studente dovrà essere capace di descrivere una persona specificando aspetto fisica, età, sesso, carattere, abitudini, difetti e passatempi preferiti.

OBBIETTIVO GENERALE:

Situare lo studente nel suo ambiente familiare e aiutarlo a rendersi conto della sua posizione in relazione alla famiglia e alla parentela.

OBBIETTIVO SPECIFICO:

- 1) L'alunno dovrà essere in grado di parlare correntemente e correttamente dei membri della sua famiglia e della sua parentela sapendo presentarli e descriverli.
- 2) L'alunno dovrà essere in grado di scoprire, d'identificare e d'accertare le località del suo paese confrontandole con quelle dei genitori.

ARGOMENTO: IO E GLI ALTRI ... * L'ORIGINE *

LEZIONE: QUINTA

OBBIETTIVO GENERALE:

Aiutare l'allievo a prendere coscienza del suo ambiente geografico-culturale e di quello di provenienza dei suoi genitori.

OBBIETTIVO SPECIFICO:

L'alunno dovrà essere in grado di scoprire, d'identificare e d'accertare la località del suo paese confrontandole con quelle dei genitori notando differenze culturali, climatiche, linguistiche, politiche, ecc...

OBBIETTIVO GENERALE:

Fare accertare agli alunni l'origine dell'Halloween, con lo scopo di paragonare tale manifestazione con alcune feste (come quella dei Morti e dei Santi), celebrate in Italia.

OBBIETTIVI SPECIFICI:

- 1) Permettere allo studente di complementare le sue espressioni con un vocabolario preciso.
- 2) Permettere allo studente di poter descrivere il proprio costume di travestimento in occasione dell'Halloween, o quello dei compagni che l'ha impressionato di più, e di saper parlare, in generale, di costumi e travestimenti.

ARGOMENTO: * L'AUTUNNO *

LEZIONE: SETTIMA

OBBIETTIVO GENERALE:

Rendere gli alunni capaci di constatare i fenomeni stagionali e gli aspetti per meglio descriverli in un linguaggio preciso.

OBBIETTIVO SPECIFICO:

L'alunno dovrà essere in grado di descrivere oralmente e per iscritto l'autunno, i suoi aspetti climatici, agricolo-rurali, sociali e le diverse attività che questi aspetti contribuiscono a cambiare o a modificare.

ARGOMENTO: * IL MIO QUARTIERE *

LEZIONE: OTTAVA

OBBIETTIVO GENERALE:

Dare l'opportunità allo studente di situare la sua casa nel quartiere in cui vive, identificandone le vie, i commerci e i servizi che questo offre.

OBBIETTIVO SPECIFICO:

Lo studente dovrà essere in grado di usare correttamente la terminologia e la nomenclatura riguardante il quartiere, di descrivere e identificare ciò che vi si trova, di spiegare l'uso e la ragione di servizi pubblici e privati, parlando delle proprie attività nel suo quartiere.

ARGOMENTO: L'Esterno della Casa

LEZIONE:

NONA

OBBIETTIVO GENERALE:

Gli alunni devono saper esprimersi in un italiano standard sulla casa, i suoi aspetti ed i suoi dintorni.

OBBIETTIVO SPECIFICO:

L'alunno deve essere in grado di chiedere e dare informazioni sulla sua abitazione e tipo di costruzione.

Deve essere capace di situare la sua abitazione, descrivere gli esterni, di paragonare le qualità e d'identificarne la proprietà.

ARGOMENTO: L'Interno della Casa

LEZIONE: DECIMA

OBBIETTIVO GENERALE:

L'alunno sarà in grado di esprimersi in un linguaggio corretto descrivendo l'interno della sua abitazione, la sua disposizione e il suo contenuto.

OBBIETTIVO SPECIFICO:

Parlando della sua casa, l'allievo saprà enumerare stanze e oggetti, saprà spiegare ubicazione e posizioni e descrivere l'arredamento. Sarà in grado di confrontare alcune caratteristiche della sua casa con quelle di altri abitazioni.

APPENDIX C

Pages 127 - 134

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OTIS-LENNON SCHOOL ABILITY TEST

By Arthur S. Otis and Roger T. Lennon

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Pages 135 - 142

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TEST D'HABILETE SCOLAIRE OTIS-LENNON

Versión et adaptation françaises par

Le Laboratoire de psychométrie de l'Université d'Ottawa

Sous la direction de

George Sarraxin, Charles E. McInnis,
Raymond Vallancourt et Lawrence Dayhaw

Avec la collaboration de
Jean-Marc Chevrier

Institut de Recherches psychologiques, inc.

Montréal, Québec

APPENDIX D

Pages 144 - 155

Copyright Material

ATTITUDE TOWARD LANGUAGE ARTS ELEMENTARY

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NOME: _____

DATA: _____

I. Rispondi!

1) Come si chiama il personaggio più importante?

- a) Fior di Pera
- b) Fior di Pisello
- c) Foglia di Pisello

2. Di che cosa è fatto il cane?

- a) di stoffa azzura
- b) di pelle azzurra
- c) di carne ed ossa

3) Quante orecchie ha il cane?

- a) una
- b) due
- c) tre

4) Cosa vuole essere il cane?

- a) un mago
- b) un cane vero
- c) una zanzare

5) Il mago Gelsomino non può soffrire

- a) i cani
- b) i piselli
- c) le zanzare

- 6) Il mago Gelsomino trasforma il cane in
- a) un cavallo
 - b) una bambina
 - c) un bellissimo cane
- 7) Cosa dice Mariettina al cane trasformato?
- a) "che bello"
 - b) "vattene"
 - c) "vieni qui"
- 8) Cosa fa il cane per riavere l'affetto di Mariettina?
- a) si fa trasformare di nuovo in un cane di stoffa
 - b) le compra un altro cane
 - c) si colora di rosso
- 9) Il mago Gelsomino regala al cane
- a) un osso
 - b) un nastro blu
 - c) un campanellino d'argento
- 10) Cosa fa Mariettina quando rivede il suo vecchio cane?
- a) lo stringe fra le braccia
 - b) comincia a piangere
 - c) lo manda via

APPENDIX F

II. a) Leggi questo racconto attentamente.

FIOR DI PISELLO

Fior di Pisello era un cane di stoffa azzura a pallini, con un'orecchia sola. L'altra gliel'avevano mangiata le tarme.

Mariettina voleva molto bene a Fior di Pisello e gli diceva:

- Tu sei il cagnolino del mio cuore.

Un giorno, Fior di Pisello si annoiò di essere soltanto un cane di stoffa, sia pure a pallini. Andò dal Mago Gelsomino e gli disse:

- Voglio essere un cane vero: il cane più bello del mondo.

Il Mago Gelsomino ci pensò qualche minuto, si grattò dolcemente i geloni e disse:

- Oggi non posso fare incanti; ho le scarpe rotte. Ripassa domani.

Fior di Pisello s'infuriò moltissimo.

- Sei un Mago sfaccendato, pigro, disordinato e nullatenente. E se non mi fai subito l'incanto, dirò alle zanzare che ti vengano a pizzicare mentre dormi.

Il Mago Gelsomino non poteva soffrire le zanzare, specialmente quando dormiva, e si affrettò a trasformare Fior di Pisello in un bellissimo cane, il cane più bello del mondo. Al posto dell'orecchia mangiata dalle tarme, gli mise una stella d'argento.

Quando Fior di Pisello attraversò la strada per tornare da Mariettina, la gente lo guardava meravigliata e diceva:

- Che cane stupendo! Forse è il cane del re. - E si alzava piena di rispetto.

Mariettina, intanto, piangeva perchè aveva perduto il suo cagnolino di stoffa azzurra a pallini, e degnò appena di uno sguardo il bellissimo cane che le venne davanti.

- Vattene! - gli gridò. - Io voglio Fior di Pisello.

- Fior di Pisello sono io! - disse il bellissimo cane, agitando la coda.

- E una bugia - gli rispose Mariettina. - Il mio cagnolino era di stoffa azzurra a pallini e tu sei soltanto un grosso cane peloso pieno di superbia. - E lo scacciò.

Fior di Pisello, molto triste, tornò dal Mago Gelsomino e gli disse:

- Per piacere, Mago Gelsomino, fammi tornare come prima. Mariettina non mi vuole.

- Bene! - rispose il Mago Gelsomino, - In fondo sei un buon cane. Soltanto ti arrabbi subito. Non sta bene dire delle brutte parole a un Mago gentile come me.

Lo trasformò di nuovo in un cane di stoffa azzurra a pallini e in più gli regalò un campanellino d'argento, legato con un nastro rosso, che, quando Fior di Pisello camminava, faceva din din.

Mariettina, appena lo vide, smise subito di piangere e se lo strinse fra le braccia. Poi gli sussurrò nell'orecchia buona:

- Sei il cane più bello del mondo.

Fior di Pisello fu molto felice.

b) Metti in ordine le idee del racconto.

1. Voglio essere il cane più bello del mondo...
2. Mago Gelsomino fammi tornare come prima...
3. Mariettina appena lo vide se lo strinse fra le braccia...
4. Mariettina piangeva perchè aveva perduto il suo cagnolino ...
5. Fior di Pisello fu molto felice...
6. Tu sei il cagnolino del mio cuore.
7. Dirò alle zanzare che ti vengono a pizzicare mentre dormi.
8. Il Mago Gelsomino si affrettò a trasformare Fior di Pisello in un bellissimo cane...

c) Riordinare le parole per formare una frase.

1. Mariettina / stoffa / Il / era / di / cagnolino / azzurra / di

2. cane / del / il / bello / sei / mondo / più / Tu

III. A quali frasi si riferiscono le seguenti parole:

Tarlo	Mago
Tarme	Stregone

- a) Gli insetti che rodono la stoffa sono _____.
- b) Un insetto che rodo il legno _____.
- c) Un personaggio fantastico che esercita la magia è _____ o _____.

IV. Scegli la risposta giusta.

1. Il Mago si chiamava Gelsomino. La parola Gelsomino è il nome...
 - a) d'un frutto
 - b) d'un fiore
 - c) d'un pianeta
2. Il pisello è...
 - a) un albero
 - b) un uccello
 - c) un legume
3. Quale parola non si riferisce a stoffa?
 - a) panno
 - b) legno
 - c) tessuto

V. Leggi attentamente la frase seguente:

Mariettina degnò appena di uno sguardo il bellissimo cane
che le venne davanti.

1. A chi si riferiscono le paroline sottolineate:
 che _____, le _____
2. La parolina le può essere:
 - a) un articolo
 - b) un nome
 - c) un pronome
3. La parolina che può essere
 - a) congiunzione
 - b) pronome
 - c) verbo

VI. 1. Sottolinea nella frase la buona risposta.

a) Fior di Pisello (e - è) un cane di stoffa.

2. Quante frasi ci sono in questi paragrafi? Cerchia il numero esatto.

a) "Il Mago Gelsomino non sopportava le zanzare, quando dormiva."

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

b) "Il cagnolino era di stoffa azzurra e il cane era peloso e superbo."

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

VII. A quali nomi nel testo (il racconto) si riferiscono le parole di qualità numerate.

1. rosso

6. bello

11. triste

2. gentile

7. d'argento

12. sfaccendato

3. disordinato

8. pigro

13. stupendo

4. azzurro

9. vero

14. grosso

5. brutte

10. felice

15. peloso

Esempio:

a) stella

b) stoffa

c) parole

d) nastro

e) campanello

f) mago

g) cane

VIII. Le parole d'azione (o i verbi) in italiano terminano in are, ere, ire.

a) Classifica nella colonna appropriata la parola coniugate.

Esempio: rispose

1. (ti) arrabbi

2. (si) affrettò

3. vuole

4. vattene

5. piangeva

6. smise

7. mise

8. dormi

9. regalò

10. andò

11. (si) annoiò

12. venne

ARE	ERE	IRE
	rispondere	

IX. Coniuga al ...

PRESENTE	PRESENTE	PASSATO PROSSIMO
Io mi annoio	io dico	io ho detto
tu	tu	tu
egli	egli	egli
noi ci	noi	noi
voi	voi	voi
essi	essi	essi

X. Completa la scheda.

ARTICOLI

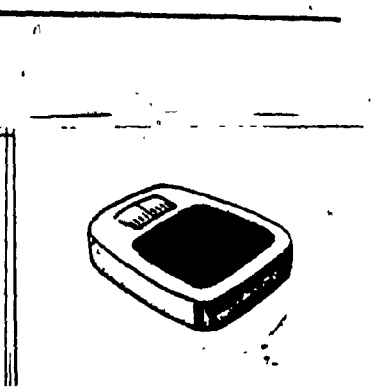
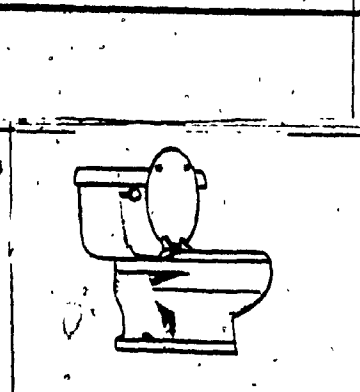
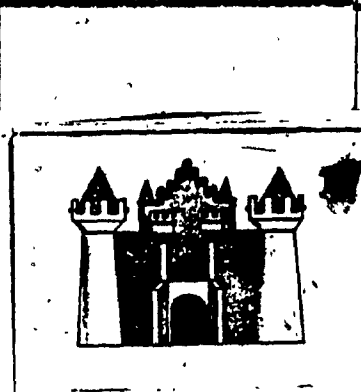
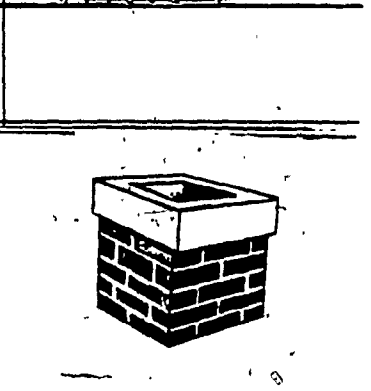
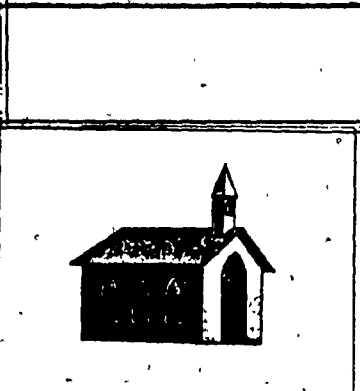
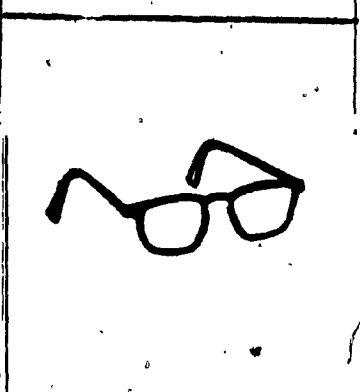
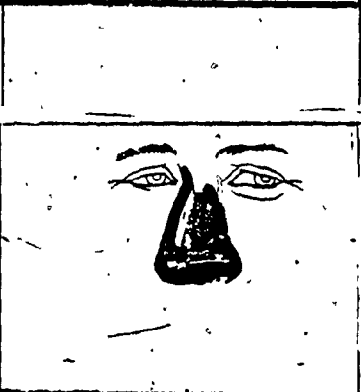
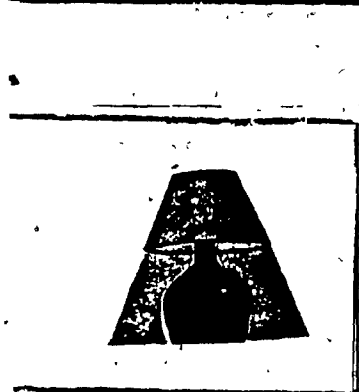
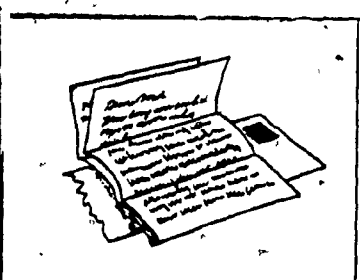
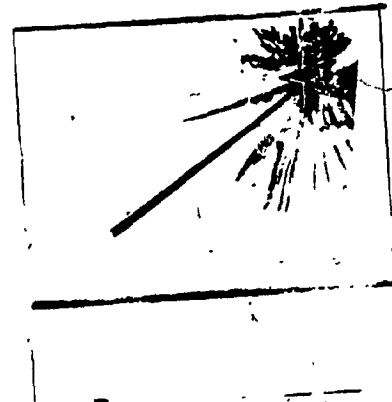
NOMI

Esempio:

Singolare	Plurale	Singolare	Plurale
il	i	pisello	piselli
		mago	
		cuore	
		stoffa	
		braccio	
		cane	
		orecchio	
		orecchia	
		nastro	
		coda	
		sguardo	

nome- _____

OSSERVA BENE. COSA VEDI? SCRIVI.



2.



3.



4.



5.



8.

6.



8

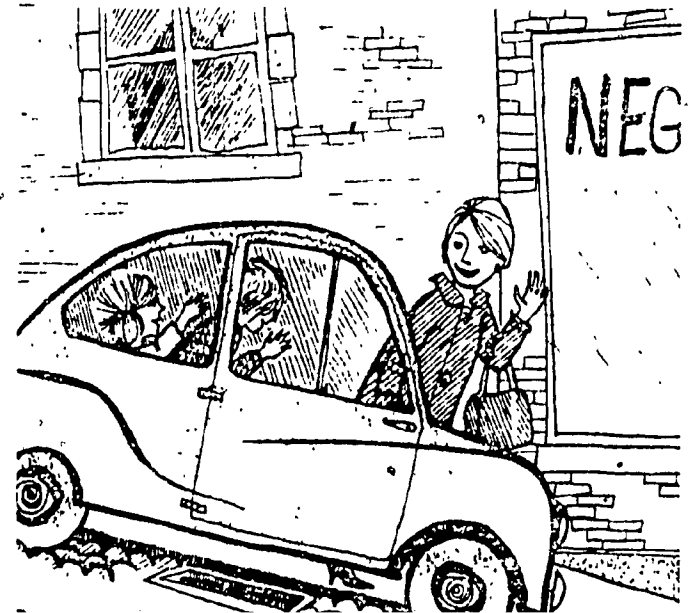
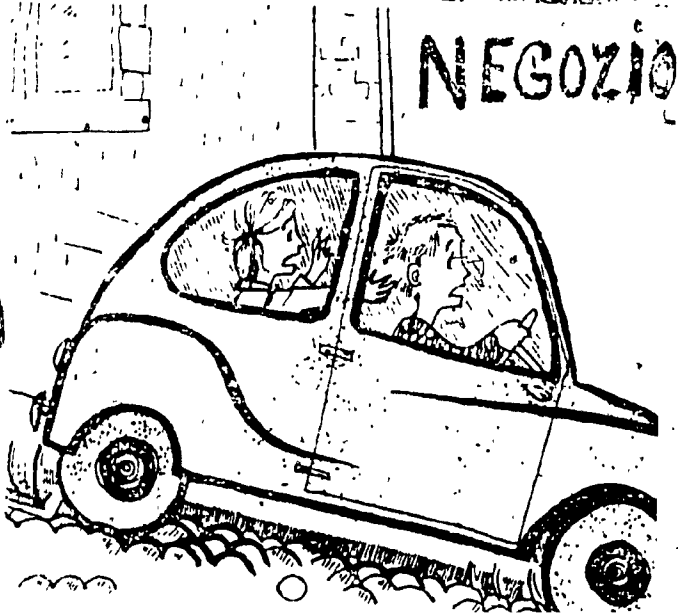
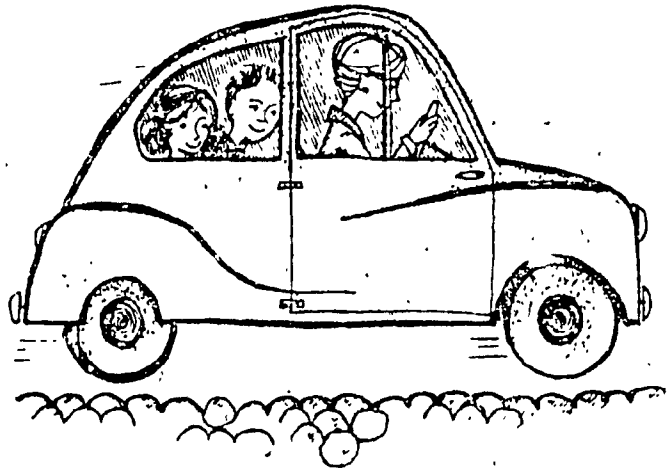
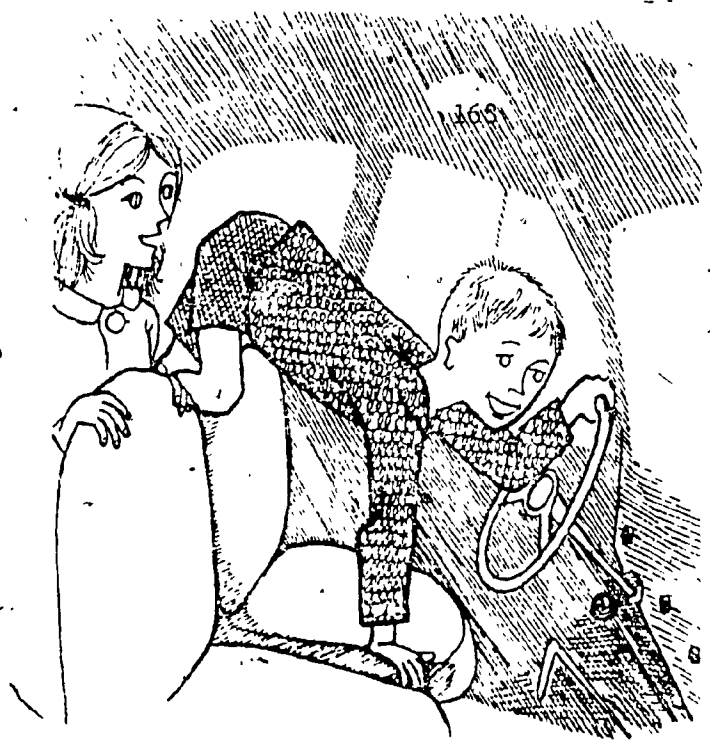
7



NOME: _____

TEMA _____

XI. a) Metti in ordine logico le immagini illustrati sulla seguente pagina
numerandole 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 - 6\



b) Descrivi con una frase ogni immagine in ordine logico.

- 1) _____

- 2) _____

- 3) _____

- 4) _____

- 5) _____

- 6) _____

c) Quale titolo daresti tu a questa storia?

Name of Student: _____

Marker: _____

COMPOSITION EVALUATIONCircle the score which best evaluates the composition.SPELLING:SCORE

- | | |
|----------------------------|---|
| - perfect (no errors) | 5 |
| - three errors or less | 4 |
| - four, five or six errors | 3 |
| - seven or more mistakes | 2 |
| - unacceptable | 1 |

PUNCTUATION:

- | | |
|-----------------|---|
| - appropriate | 2 |
| - inappropriate | 1 |

LENGTH:

- | | |
|---|---|
| - appropriate (fully developed ideas) | 2 |
| - inappropriate (far too long or too short or incomplete) | 1 |

SENTENCE ACCURACY:

Based on grammatical correctness, writing incomplete or correct sentences,

- | | |
|--|---|
| a) Excellent: (consistent use of complete, well-formed sentences, no major errors) | 5 |
| b) Very Good: (some major errors; generally above standard) | 4 |
| c) Satisfactory: (adequately meets objectives) | 3 |
| d) Below Standard: (many major errors; needs work) | 2 |
| e) Unacceptable | 1 |

SENTENCE COMPLEXITY AND VARIETY:SCORE

- | | |
|--|---|
| a) Excellent: (superior use of complex and varied sentences) | 5 |
| b) Very Good: (better than average) | 4 |
| c) Adequate: | 3 |
| d) Below Standard: (overuse of simple sentences) | 2 |
| e) Unacceptable: (far below) | 1 |

ORGANIZATION:

Ideas flow smoothly, well-developed, appropriate story conclusion.

- | | |
|--|---|
| - Excellent (outstanding organization) | 5 |
| - Above Average | 4 |
| - Standard Adequate | 3 |
| - Below Standard | 2 |
| - Totally inadequate | 1 |

VOCABULARY:

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| - superior imaginative | 5 |
| - above average | 4 |
| - average (ordinary) | 3 |
| - dull, uninteresting below average | 2 |
| - unsatisfactory | 1 |

ORIGINALITY: (in general)

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| - very imaginative | 5 |
| - above average | 4 |
| - ordinary | 3 |
| - below average (dull) | 2 |
| - unacceptable | 1 |

OVERALL RATING:

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| - excellent | 5 |
| - above average | 4 |
| - average | 3 |
| - below average | 2 |
| - unsatisfactory | 1 |

APPENDIX J.

QUESTIONNAIRESTUDENT'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS ITALIAN COURSES

	<u>I</u> <u>STRONGLY</u> <u>AGREE</u>	<u>I</u> <u>AGREE</u>	<u>I</u> <u>DON'T</u> <u>CARE</u>	<u>I</u> <u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>I</u> <u>STRONGLY</u> <u>DISAGREE</u>
1) I am very happy to come to Italian school this year.	1	2	3	4	5
2) I come to Italian school because most of my friends were also taking Italian.	1	2	3	4	5
3) I come to Italian school because my parents force me to learn Italian.	1	2	3	4	5
4) I come to Italian school because the lessons are fun.	1	2	3	4	5
5) It is important for me to learn Italian because then I can speak Italian when I will go to Italy.	1	2	3	4	5
6) It is important to learn Italian so that I could go see Italian movies, watch Italian television and read Italian newspapers and magazines.	1	2	3	4	5
7) It is important to speak Italian so that I can communicate with my family, relatives and friends in Italian.	1	2	3	4	5
8) It is important to speak Italian because in the future it will be necessary to speak Italian if you want to live in Montreal.	1	2	3	4	5
9) I like to do my Italian homework.	1	2	3	4	5
10) I understand what I am supposed to learn.	1	2	3	4	5

	<u>I</u> <u>STRONGLY</u> <u>AGREE</u>	<u>I</u> <u>AGREE</u>	<u>I</u> <u>DON'T</u> <u>CARE</u>	<u>I</u> <u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>I</u> <u>STRONGLY</u> <u>DISAGREE</u>
11) When I don't understand, I ask a lot of questions.	1	2	3	4	5
12) I hate it when I have Italian homework.	1	2	3	4	5
13) It is lots of fun to come to school on Saturdays.	1	2	3	4	5
14) The materials the teacher gives us are interesting.	1	2	3	4	5
15) When I have nothing to do in class, I prefer reading my English or French comic books.	1	2	3	4	5
16) It is boring in class, because we can't always do what we please.	1	2	3	4	5
17) We get enough time to help each other in class.	1	2	3	4	5
18) We spend too much time doing one activity.	1	2	3	4	5
19) The teacher gives us enough time to practice speaking Italian.	1	2	3	4	5
20) The teacher does too much talking.	1	2	3	4	5
21) I find it so boring that I daydream.	1	2	3	4	5
22) I participate in all the activities.	1	2	3	4	5
23) Too much of what I learn comes from the textbook.	1	2	3	4	5
24) I get enough chances to work with others in small groups.	1	2	3	4	5
25) There is no time in class to get bored.	1	2	3	4	5

	<u>I STRONGLY AGREE</u>	<u>I AGREE</u>	<u>I DON'T CARE</u>	<u>I DISAGREE</u>	<u>I STRONGLY DISAGREE</u>
26) We play a lot of interesting games with words in class.	1	2	3	4	5
27) If I could, I would come late to school every Saturday.	1	2	3	4	5
28) I like to ask my teacher what the others learned while I was absent.	1	2	3	4	5
29) I feel I am learning a lot this year in Italian school.	1	2	3	4	5

30) a) What did you like the most in your Italian course this session? Why?

b) What did you like the least in your Italian course this session? Why?

QUESTIONNAIREECHELLE D'ATTITUDE ENVERS LES APPRENTISSAGES
DES COURS ITALIEN.

	<u>JE SUIS ENTIEREMENT D'ACCORD</u>	<u>JE SUIS D'ACCORD</u>	<u>JE M'EN FICHE</u>	<u>JE NE SUIS PAS D'ACCORD</u>	<u>TOUT A FAIT PAS D'ACCORD</u>
1) Je suis très content de venir à l'école Italien cette année.	1	2	3	4	5
2) Je viens au cour d'Italien parce que mes parents me force à apprendre l'Italien.	1	2	3	4	5
3) Je viens au cours d'Italien parce que tous mes amis viennent au cour.	1	2	3	4	5
4) Je viens au cour d'Italien parce que c'est le 'fun'.	1	2	3	4	5
5) C'est très important d'apprendre l'Italien pour que je puisse le parler bien quand j'irais en Italie.	1	2	3	4	5
6) C'est très important d'apprendre l'Italien parce que je pourrais aller voir les films Italiens, regardez la television en Italien, et lire le journal et les revués Italiens.	1	2	3	4	5
7) C'est très important de parler en Italien pour communiquer avec ma famille, les parents et les amis.	1	2	3	4	5
8) C'est très important de parler l'Italien parce que dans le futur ça sera nécessaire de parler l'Italien pour vivre à Montréal.	1	2	3	4	5

	JE SUIS ENTIEREMENT D'ACCORD	JE SUIS D'ACCORD	JE M'EN FICHE	JE NE SUIS PAS D'ACCORD	TOUT A FAIT PAS D'ACCORD
9) J'aime beaucoup faire mes devoirs d'Italien.	1	2	3	4	5
10) Je comprends bien qu'est-ce que je dois apprendre dans mon cours.	1	2	3	4	5
11) Quand je ne comprends pas, je pose beaucoup de questions.	1	2	3	4	5
12) Je deteste quand j'ai des leçons Italien.	1	2	3	4	5
13) C'est le 'fun' de venire à l'école Italien.	1	2	3	4	5
14) Le professeur nous donne des exercices intéressants.	1	2	3	4	5
15) Quand je n'ai rien à faire en classe, je préfère lire des comics en anglais ou français.	1	2	3	4	5
16) C'est platte en classe, parce qu'on ne peut pas toujours faire qu'est-ce qu'on veut.	1	2	3	4	5
17) Dans la classe, nous avons assez de temps pour s'aider mutuellement.	1	2	3	4	5
18) Dans la classe, nous passons trop de temps à travailler sur la même chose.	1	2	3	4	5
19) Le professeur nous donne la chance de nous parler en Italien.	1	2	3	4	5
20) Le professeur parle trop dans la classe.	1	2	3	4	5
21) Le cours est tellement platte et souvent je suis dans la lune.	1	2	3	4	5

	<u>JE SUIS ENTIEREMENT D'ACCORD</u>	<u>JE SUIS D'ACCORD</u>	<u>JE M'EN FICHE</u>	<u>JE NE SUIS PAS D'ACCORD</u>	<u>TOUT A FAIT PAS D'ACCORD</u>
22) J'aime participer dans tout les activités.	1	2	3	4	5
23) Nous apprenons trop de choses dans nos livres 'Parliamo l'Italiano'.	1	2	3	4	5
24) Nous avons la chance de pouvoir travailler en petits groupes.	1	2	3	4	5
25) Il n'y a pas de temps en classe pour s'ennuyer.	1	2	3	4	5
26) Ont jouent beaucoup de jeux intéressants en classe.	1	2	3	4	5
27) Si je pouvais, j'arriverais en retard à l'école tous les samedis.	1	2	3	4	5
28) C'est très utile de demander à mon professeur ce qu'a été appris de nouveau pendant mon absence.	1	2	3	4	5
29) Je trouve que j'apprends beaucoup au cours d'Italien cette année.	1	2	3	4	5

30) a) Qu'est-ce que tu as aimé de plus dans ton cours d'Italien cette session? Pourquoi?

b) Qu'est-ce que tu as aimé de moins dans ton cours d'Italien cette session? Pourquoi?

APPENDIX K

QUESTIONNAIREATTITUDE TOWARD THE TEACHER

	<u>NEVER</u>	<u>SOMETIMES</u>	<u>USUALLY</u>	<u>ALWAYS</u>
1) My teacher tries new and interesting ways of teachings.	1	2	3	4
2) My teacher acts like he or she is bored with teaching.	1	2	3	4
3) My teacher is fair.	1	2	3	4
4) My teacher praises students a lot.	1	2	3	4
5) My teacher booses students around.	1	2	3	4
6) My teacher talks down to the students.	1	2	3	4
7) I feel safe around my teacher.	1	2	3	4
8) My teacher cares about my feelings.	1	2	3	4
9) My teacher makes some students look stupid.	1	2	3	4
10) I like and admire my teacher.	1	2	3	4
11) My teacher enjoys laughing and joking with us.	1	2	3	4
12) My teacher is friendly to students.	1	2	3	4
13) My teacher trusts me.	1	2	3	4
14) My teacher points out my mistakes more than my good work.	1	2	3	4
15) My teacher does a good job of helping students learn.	1	2	3	4

QUESTIONNAIREATTITUDE EN REGARD DE TON PROFESSEUR
A L'ELEMENTAIRE

	<u>TOUJOURS</u>	<u>SOUVENT</u>	<u>QUELQUE FOIS</u>	<u>JAMAIS</u>
1) Le professeur cherches des moyens nouveaux et intéressants pour enseigner.	1	2	3	4
2) Mon professeur semble s'ennuyer à enseigner.	1	2	3	4
3) Mon professeur louanges beaucoup les élèves.	1	2	3	4
4) Mon professeur est juste.	1	2	3	4
5) Mon professeur mènes les élèves par le bout du nez.	1	2	3	4
6) Mon professeur méprise les élèves.	1	2	3	4
7) Je me sens en securité avec mon professeur.	1	2	3	4
8) Mon professeur est attentifs à mes besoins.	1	2	3	4
9) Mon professeur ridiculise certains élèves.	1	2	3	4
10) J'aime et admire mon professeur.	1	2	3	4
11) Mon professeur aime rire et faire des farces avec nous.	1	2	3	4
12) Mon professeur est gentil avec les élèves.	1	2	3	4
13) Mon professeur me fait confiance.	1	2	3	4
14) Mon professeur souligne plus mes erreurs que mon bon travail.	1	2	3	4
15) Mon professeur aides beaucoup les élèves à apprendre.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX L

	Perfezionamento d'accordo	Discrezionalità d'accordo	Nessuna preferenza	Discrezionalità d'accordo	Perfezionamento d'accordo	
1. I programmi scolastici sono troppo strutturati.	1	2	3	4	5	Uno dei maggiori problemi della scuola odierna è la mancanza di una struttura ben definita.
2. Perdo troppo tempo e spreco troppo energia cercando di controllare e di mantenere l'ordine in classe.	1	2	3	4	5	Dedico tempo ed energia ad aiutare gli alunni nel trovare un significato personale nel programma.
3. Gli insegnanti hanno bisogno di molte opportunità per migliorare la loro conoscenza e la loro preparazione delle nuove tecniche partecipando ai seminari insedi.	1	2	3	4	5	Seminari offerta dalla scuola non sono necessari. L'esperienza d'insegnamento e la varietà delle classi che dà un affettivo aiuto all'insegnanti.
4. La responsabilità principale dell'insegnante nei confronti dell'alunno è di insegnargli ad integrarsi nella società.	1	2	3	4	5	La responsabilità principale dell'insegnante è di aiutare l'alunno a sentirsi libero di sviluppare la propria personalità e di dargli un senso di appagamento come individuo, in maniera relativamente indipendente dalle aspettative della società in cui vive.
5. L'insegnante non dovrebbe lasciarsi coinvolgere personalmente e emotivamente degli alunni.	1	2	3	4	5	L'insegnante deve assumere ruolo di amico prima di potere veramente aiutare lo studente a realizzare il suo potenziale.

	Perfettamente d'accordo	Discretamente d'accordo	Nessuna preferenza	Discretamente d'accordo	Perfettamente d'accordo	
6. Gli insegnanti dovrebbero ricevere un riconoscimento per la loro creatività e dovrebbero avere l'opportunità di condividere le loro idee con gli altri colleghi.	1	2	3	4	5	Non c'è bisogno di speciale riconoscimento per gli insegnanti, particolarmente creativi poichè questo atteggiamento crea uno spirito troppo competitivo ed esagera il valore di nuove idee.
7. Alcuni alunni non possono essere motivati a causa di influenze ambientali che non sono sotto il controllo degli insegnanti.		2	3	4	5	Non c'è alunno che non possa essere motivato ad imparare.
8. L'approccio e la metodologia d'insegnamento dovrebbero essere coerenti con il programma prescritto dall'istituzione.	1	2	3	4	5	Ogni insegnante dovrebbe avere la libertà di modificare o d'implementare qualunque metodo che contribuisca alla riuscita degli obbiettivi stabiliti per quel livello.
9. Una certa forma d'istruzione individualizzata è generalmente più efficace di un'istruzione di gruppo, qualunque sia il livello.	1	2	3	4	5	L'istruzione di gruppo è ancora il metodo più pratico e più efficace per insegnare a qualunque livello.
10. Consigli di classe dovrebbero produrre nuove idee, nuovi materiali didattici e approcci.	1	2	3	4	5	Consigli di classe dovrebbero essere molto brevi e limitarsi a essenziali problemi amministrativi.
11. Gli alunni non possono imparare bene in aula rumorosa e movimentata.	1	2	3	4	5	Gli alunni dovrebbero avere il diritto di parlarsi e di abbandonare i loro banchi e muoversi liberamente.

	Perfettamente d'accordo	Discrettamente d'accordo	Nessuna preferenza	Discrettamente d'accordo	Perfettamente d'accordo	
12. Un insegnante dovrebbero essere libero di sperimentare nuove idee o nuove tecniche didattiche.	1	2	3	4	5	Ricerche sperimentali didattiche dovrebbero avere luogo soltanto sotto il controllo di personale amministrativo.
13. Un insegnante può influenzare in maniera significativa l'attitudine e i valori degli allievi anche provenienti da ambienti sociali a basso livello culturale.	1	2	3	4	5	Un insegnante può far ben poco per motivare alunni provenienti da ambienti sociali e familiari a basso livello culturale.
14. La maggior parte degli alunni nella mia classe sono in grado di assumersi la responsabilità di valutarli e di auto-disciplinarsi sia come individui, sia come gruppo.	1	2	3	4	5	Non ci si può aspettare che gli alunni assumano la responsabilità o di auto-disciplinarsi o di auto-valutarsi prima della scuola secondaria. In questo caso è l'insegnante che deve assumersi la maggior parte della responsabilità.
15. Nelle nostre scuole c'è troppa sperimentazione e troppo poco rispetto per i sistemi tradizionali.	1	2	3	4	5	Gli insegnanti debbono essere disposti a sperimentare nuovi approcci perchè le nostre scuole hanno bisogno di cambiare considerevolmente, prima di arrivare al successo.
16. In una classe di 25 o più studenti, c'è ben poca possibilità di colloqui individuali.	1	2	3	4	5	L'insegnante può e dovrebbe trovare il tempo per frequenti colloqui con gli alunni su base personale.

	Perfettamente d'accordo	Discretamente d'accordo	Nessuna preferenza	Discretamente d'accordo	Perfettamente d'accordo	
17. Discussioni di gruppo in classe costituiscono uno spreco di tempo.	1	2	3	4	5	Discussioni collettive e scambi d'idee sono tecniche educative molto utili.
18. Un insegnante dovrebbe essere in grado d'impiegare qualunque approccio o qualunque tecnica che contribuisca allo sviluppo del potenziale dell'individualità e della creatività di ogni alunno.	1	2	3	4	5	L'insegnante si rivela efficace quando limita i propri metodi ai sistemi "standardizzati" o tradizionali.
19. Gli insegnanti non sono psicologi e di conseguenza dovrebbero limitare i propri sforzi ad insegnare la loro materia.	1	2	3	4	5	Gli insegnanti devono essere capaci d'applicare i principi di teoria psicologica e teoria dello sviluppo in modo di soddisfare efficacemente i bisogni socioemotivi di ogni alunno.
20. Gli alunni dovrebbero essere incoraggiati a partecipare sempre di più alla programmazione e valutazione dei loro corsi.	1	2	3	4	5	Gli alunni dovrebbero partecipare solo in maniera molto limitata alla strutturazione e valutazione dei corsi. Le decisioni finali devono essere lasciati a l'insegnante.

	Perfettamente d'accordo	Discretamente d'accordo	Nessuna preferenza	Discretamente d'accordo	Perfettamente d'accordo	
21. Eccessiva elasticità e partecipazione degli studenti alla programmazione in una classe crea una sensazione di insicurezza e confusione.	1	2	3	4	5	Elasticità e spontaneità in una classe sono elementi vitali perchè tali condizioni incoraggiano creatività ed entusiasmo.
22. La maniera migliore per un insegnante per acquistare il rispetto dei suoi allievi è di diventare un amico personale.	1	2	3	4	5	Un insegnante deve ottenere il rispetto degli alunni, mantenendo una certa distanza.
23. Gli insegnanti dovrebbero collaborare nella valutazione di approcci didattici nell'identificazione di problemi o debolezze nei metodi d'insegnamento e cooperare al miglioramento dei corsi.	1	2	3	4	5	La valutazione dei metodi dovrebbe essere una faccenda personale, che richiede soltanto una discussione tra l'insegnante e il responsabile.
24. La maniera migliore per insegnare un concetto è sempre quella d'impiegare diverse tecniche piuttosto che usare un metodo tradizionale già approvato.	1	2	3	4	5	La maniera migliore per insegnare un concetto è quella di usare un metodo che abbia già avuto successo e che abbia prodotto dei risultati positivi.

APPENDIX M

QUESTIONNARIO VALUTATIVO PERLA GUIDA DIDATTICA

	<u>ECCELENTE</u>	<u>OTTIMO</u>	<u>BUONO</u>	<u>SCARSO</u>	<u>INSUFFICIENTE</u>
1. La scelta degli obbiettivi trattati nella guida didattica; erano...	5	4	3	2	1
2. Il 'metodo' di svolgimento scelto per raggiungere gli obbiettivi era...	5	4	3	2	1
3. Il contenuto scelto per i vari mezzi didattici era...	5	4	3	2	1
4. Il susseguirsi dei vari mezzi didattici era...	5	4	3	2	1
5. I materiali scelti per sostenere gli obbiettivi elencati erano...	5	4	3	2	1
6. Le direttive per riferirsi alle risorse delle varie parte della guida erano...	5	4	3	2	1
7. La pertinenza del vocabolario usato per il gruppo scelto era...	5	4	3	2	1
8. Le illustrazioni e gli esempi usati per il gruppo sperimentale erano...	5	4	3	2	1
9. Le lezioni erano...	5	4	3	2	1
10. Il contenuto delle lezioni era...	5	4	3	2	1

1. Ci sono state difficoltà nel seguire la guida didattica? Per piacere specificare.

2. Che cosa vi è piaciuto di più a proposito dello svolgimento delle lezioni?

3. Che cosa vi è piaciuto di meno a proposito dello svolgimento delle lezioni?

4. Se poteste, quale parte dello svolgimento cambiereste? E come?

5. Pensate che tale svolgimento abbia influenzato positivamente i ragazzi? Perché?

6. Pensate che questa guida vi abbia aiutato? Come?

7. Sareste favorevoli alla preparazione di una guida didattica simile per tutte le classi?

APPENDIX N

TABLE A

Chi Square Results of Attitude
towards the Italian Courses Questionnaire

	χ^2	P	Significance by		
			TMET	SA	MOTL
1) I am very happy to come to Italian school this year.	20.642	.0082	*		
2) I come to Italian school because most of my friends were also taking Italian.	9.403	.309			
3) I come to Italian school because my parents force me to learn Italian.	23.014	.0033	*		
4) I come to Italian school because the lessons are fun.	24.187	.0021	*		
5) It is important for me to learn Italian because then I can speak Italian when I will go to Italy.	21.976	.0050	*		
6) It is important to learn Italian so that I could go see Italian movies, watch Italian television and read Italian newspapers and magazines.	9.060	.3373			
7) It is important to speak Italian so that I can communicate with my family, relatives and friends in Italian.	14.438	.0710			
8) It is important to speak Italian because in the future it will be necessary to speak Italian if you want to live in Montreal.	22.167 21.714	.0046 .0055	*		*
9) I like to do my Italian homework.	12.335	.1369			
10) I understand what I am supposed to learn.	20.507	.0248			*

		Significance by		
		x^2	P	TMET SA MOTL
11)	When I don't understand, I ask a lot of questions.	13.567	.0938	
12)	I hate it when I have Italian homework.	10.899	.2075	
13)	It is lots of fun to come to school on Saturdays.	14.159	.0777	
14)	The materials the teacher gives us are interesting.	39.574	.0000	*
15)	When I have nothing to do in class, I prefer reading my English or French comic books.	13.076	.1093	
16)	It is boring in class, because we can't always do what we please.	10.256	.2476	
17)	We get enough time to help each other in class.	15.499	.050	
18)	We spend too much time doing one activity.	7.003	.536	
19)	The teacher gives us enough time to practice speaking Italian.	15.096	.057	
20)	The teacher does too much talking.	16.622	.034	*
21)	I find it so boring that I daydream.	3.052	.931	
22)	I participate in all the activities.	19.474	.013	*
23)	Too much of what I learn comes from the textbook.	5.685	.841	
24)	I get enough chances to work with others in small groups.	27.230	.003	*
25)	There is no time in class to get bored.	11.352 17.767	.331 .059	* *

		Significance by		
	χ^2	P	TMET	SA MOTL
26)	We play a lot of interesting games with words in class.	20.198	.027	*
27)	If I could, I would come late to school every Saturday.	21.763	.0164	*
28)	I like to ask my teacher what the others learned while I was absent.	15.753	.1069	*
29)	I feel I am learning a lot this year in Italian school.	23.256	.0098	*

30) a) What did you like the most in your Italian course this session? Why?

Systematic Strategy N - 63

- (15) I like working in groups because I learn a lot of things I didn't know.
- (10) I like the exercises in class because they are easy and fun.
- (25) I like the games we play especially with words.
- (4) I like the homework because they are fun to do with our parents.
- (2) I like all the subjects because I like to talk.
- (4) I like what we talk and read about.
- (3) Autumn and Halloween were interesting and fun.
- (2) Drawing and trying to explain where we live was very nice.
- (3) No reply.

Objective-Based N - 52

- (4) The text-book is most interesting
- (2) I like talking about Italy.
- (8) I like when we play games; because can all be together.
- (20) Like reading.
- (10) That my friends are in class.

(5) Dictation and reading are sometimes fun.

(6) When recess comes.

(7) No reply.

Traditional Strategy N - 44

(15) Its fun because it's not important to do well on Saturdays.

(9) I like reading.

(10) I like not getting homework.

(11) I like dictations because I learn how to spell words.

(8) I like it this year because we don't do anything.

b) What did you like the least in your Italian course this session? Why?

Systematic Strategy N - 63

(18) The textbook is boring (reading from the textbook).

(20) It is a lot of work.

(15) Sometimes it is difficult.

(13) A lot of homework.

Objective-Based N - 52

(18) The homework is boring.

(7) Doing dictations and spelling tests, they are very difficult.

(22) It is boring to copy and write verbs (learning and memorizing the verbs) (verbs give me a headache).

Traditional Strategy N - 44

(3) Talking about things I don't like to talk about.

(20) Reading and studying verbs.

(10) Too much homework.

(7) Too much copying or writing in my copybook.

(4) Teacher, talks too much.

APPENDIX O

TABLE B

ATTITUDES TOWARD TEACHERS

TEACHING STRATEGIES	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
SYSTEMATIC STRATEGY	31.82	6.87
OBJECTIVE-BASED	23.13	9.16
TRADITIONAL	24.70	10.69

APPENDIX P

TABLE C

TEACHER ATTITUDE INVENTORY

TEACHING STRATEGIES	AVERAGE SCORE
SYSTEMATIC STRATEGY	104.33
OBJECTIVE-BASED STRATEGY	95.33
TRADITIONAL STRATEGY	88.33

APPENDIX Q

Results of the Evaluative Questionnaire
on the Instructional Guide

	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Poor	Very Poor
1. The objectives given in the instructional manual were...	/	3	/	/	/
2. The instructional strategy chosen to accomplish the objectives was...	1	2	/	/	/
3. The content chosen for the various instructional resources was...	/	2	1	/	/
4. The flow of content in the various instructional resources was...	/	2	1	/	/
5. The materials chosen to support the stated objectives were...	/	2	1	/	/
6. The directions for locating instruction within each source were...	/	2	1	/	/
7. The vocabulary used for the target group in all the sources was...	/	/	3	/	/
8. The illustrations and the examples used for the target group were...	/	2	1	/	/
9. Overall the lesson strategy was...	/	/	3	/	/
10. The instruction was overall...	/	/	3	/	/

1. Did you have difficulty with any sections or parts of the instructional manual? Please specify.

A little difficulty was found in finding the references stated in some of the lessons.

Overall, no major difficulty.

2. What did you like the most of the instructional strategy?

The sequencing and the co-ordination of the activities and the easy transition made available to integrate linguistic and cultural notions in the lessons.

The practicality of the strategy to impose a step-by-step process upon the learner from one activity to another providing most of all the practice.

3. What did you like the least of the instructional strategy?

The simplicity of the activities chosen.

4. What and how would you change the instructional strategy if you could?

Any change in the components of the strategy is not necessary.

Changes in content and activities could be made to integrate more history and geography.

In some lessons, lower the difficulty of reading materials chosen and increase difficulty on others.

5. Do you feel this instructional strategy has affected students' motivation to learn?

Definitely yes, the learners were always working and participation was high.

Involvement was good and enthusiasm was much higher than in my previous years of teaching. The learners integrated the grammar notions and functions unaware that they have.

6. How do you feel that this instructional guide and materials given has helped you in your teaching?

It has positively helped because the lessons were structured and sequenced in such a way that it provides information of what has been done and what has not been done.

Somehow it has provided for a sense of self-satisfaction to actually observe the learners integrate and most of all participate positively to the activities.

It has also provided for self-evaluation and personal enthusiasm towards improving the lesson.

7. Would you recommend an instructional guide be prepared at all levels of instruction?

• Absolutely there is a need to provide for some kind of instructional strategy which helps the teachers to further develop and integrate instructional materials towards the needs of the learner.

• Yes, to provide continuity from one level to another is probably most important.

In summary, the responses were all positive towards the use of a systematic instructional strategy.